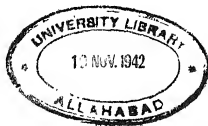


AN OUTLINE
OF
SECONDARY SCHOOL ORGANISATION

FOR INDIAN SCHOOLS



DEBNARAYAN MUKERJEE,
*Secretary, Board of High School and Intermediate
Education, United Provinces.*

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Dedicated

By kind Permission

to

The Hon'ble Sri Sampurnanand, M.L.A.,

Minister of Education, United Provinces

FOREWORD

I accepted with pleasure the invitation of my friend Mr. Debnarayan Mukerjee, to write a short Foreword to his excellent book on "Secondary School Organisation" in India. I have read through the greater part of the book and have been impressed with the comprehensiveness of its scope, the reasonableness of its outlook and the lucidity of its presentation. There are a large number of valuable and practicable suggestions about different aspects of school organisation, particularly the problem of testing and recording of school progress which the author has studied with special care and which teachers and Headmasters will find very useful in their work. What, however, gives the book greater value is the consistent attempt on the part of the author not to present his suggestions about school organisation as "tricks of the trade" but as basically related to fundamental educational principles and objectives. This is but natural because, though the exigencies of service have planted him into Secretariat work, the author has been connected with the actual working of Schools and has also participated actively, and with distinction, in Training College work. I have always felt that, whatever the shortcomings in our Training Colleges, educational leadership must ultimately come from them.

I hope the book will have, in educational circles, the reception that it deserves.

14th February, 1939.

K. G. SAIVIDAIN,
Director of Education,
Jammu & Kashmir.

PREFACE

The number of books written on Indian School Management is very small and I am not sure if any headmaster has ever felt the need for one. The subject seems to exhaust all its interest inside training institutions, while the schools outside continue their existence of stagnation and complacency. This perpetuation of a medieval state of affairs in the midst of rapidly changing world conditions has, in no small measure, been responsible for the creation of an inconsistent and almost tragic mentality in teacher and taught alike,—the teacher unable to mould and inspire the young human beings placed in his charge, the child unable to derive joy and satisfaction in the cramped and confused atmosphere of schools. Naturally, one does not wonder that the emphasis is being shifted from books to activity, from the monotony of lessons taught by teachers to the joys of creative self-activity experienced by the children themselves. The great lesson taught by modern educational philosophy is being slowly learnt in India, too, and it is but natural that Indian teachers should think of discussing the noblest and most inspiring thoughts of educational *vedavyāsas* of the day with a view to letting in more light and life inside the dreary and gloomy medieval educational citadels of India.

A book on School Management cannot but refer to the basic educational *principles* at each step. Over twenty years of service on the staff of Training Colleges have convinced me that detailed suggestions on organisation and control

of schools soon degenerate into dogmatism unless they are constantly reviewed in the light of the basic principles. Naturally, I had to keep these principles always in the foreground while discussing the details of organisation and frequently to repeat them. An inevitable consequence of this plan has been that many of the common topics found in current books on the subject have merely been mentioned as aspects of larger problems instead of being presented in the form of commonplace details. I believe that, while the essential principles should be carefully and prominently emphasised, the details should be left to the heads of institutions themselves. It is only in this way that schools can be encouraged to evolve into living and thriving human institutions.

I believe that, while schools should have certain common characteristics, they must also present special features corresponding to the types of need they are intended to fulfil. All other human institutions are growing and changing under the pressure of growing and changing human needs, but schools have been prevented from keeping pace with this natural process of human evolution. I hope that, until a clear-cut and decisive State Policy on Education is enunciated, teachers themselves will do their utmost to keep themselves and their schools abreast of the times. At each step this book suggests this course to them.

It is impossible for an academician, who had been in constant and active touch with the writings of prominent educationalists for a quarter of a century, to ignore their thoughts while writing a book. I have freely drawn upon such writings and quoted the sources, in the hope that these references will lead teachers to read their authors more extensively and intensively. I have been influenced

and inspired by them and I am sure coming generations of Indian teachers will also be influenced and inspired by them like those of the present and past generations. The debt which India owes to Dewey, Montessori, Nunn, Burt and others like them can never be repaid.

ALLAHABAD,
January, 1939.

DEBNARAYAN MUKERJEE.

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CHAPTER I

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

Trends in Educational Evolution.—Three prominent lines of advance can be noticed in the process of educational evolution all over the world. They are (1) extension of educational facilities from the select classes to the masses, leading on to the theory of universal education; (2) a consequent and necessary change in the subject-matter and methods of education from the empirical, adventitious and purely cultural, to the realistic, practical and useful; and (3) the transfer of control of education from private bodies to the State.

Another notable feature which has been assuming growing importance in recent times is the shifting of emphasis from the content of education to the educand, from the subject-matter to the pupil, especially in the early years of his life. Characteristics, hitherto unknown or vaguely known, have been discovered in children by psychologists, investigators and medical men, who are incessantly calling upon teachers and administrators to take serious notice of the fact that arbitrary, incomplete or indefinite treatment of children in their early days has led to a steady degeneration of

human nature, and we are asked to believe that much of the misery of mankind can be eliminated if the process of building up a sound, sturdy and complete human being is carefully started pretty early in life. The education of the 'Whole man' is held out to be the panacea for most of the evils from which civilisation is suffering today and the educator is constantly warned not to lose sight of the 'Child-centric' aim of education in his day-to-day task of training children in the school.

The School.—The school has become such a common feature of all civilised society that even teachers forget that it has highly specialised aims, requiring highly technical, scientific and delicate methods of procedure for their achievement. It is no longer possible for the teacher to teach the three R's in the good old way or stick to the prevalent objective of getting his pupils to pass examinations, without being accused of not taking enough care of his pupils. State requirements, created under pressure of public necessity, expect schools not only to teach children the various prescribed subjects but also to arrange for their refreshments, recreation and physical welfare and keep in close touch with their parents and the public at large through the teachers.

In other words, schools are steadily becoming specialised human institutions for looking after the children and youth of the land for a prescribed number of years and training their bodies and minds in such

a manner that no phase of their nature is neglected, perverted or damaged and the 'Whole man' in them fitted for *any* work which may fall to their lot in after life. But it is not enough to make the individual pupil 'personally' efficient; he must also be 'socially' efficient. Education, therefore, must teach co-operation, service, altruism in the best possible way. The educated man must feel his dependence upon society and realise his place in it and his responsibilities for its betterment and welfare. It is for this reason that Dewey has said : " I believe that the school is primarily a social institution. Education being a social process, the school is simply the form of community life in which all those agencies are concentrated that will be most effective in bringing the child to share in the inherited resources of the race and to use his powers for social ends."

This task of the school, however, is so difficult and complex that it is not possible for the same school to meet the requirements of all children, or even all the requirements of the same child for a large number of years. This fact gives rise to special types of schools which aim at imparting training to children during their different life-stages,—the Nursery schools, the Primary schools, the Secondary schools and so on. The nomenclature may be different in different countries but the underlying principles are the same, for each type of school knows, or is expected to know, the special purpose for which it exists, the purpose in

general terms being to help the pupils' growth and development according to their physical and mental characteristics.

Secondary Education.—This book is concerned with the secondary stage of education, the word secondary being used in the sense in which modern educators use it as corresponding roughly to the adolescent stage of human life. The distinction between the various stages of education is very clearly explained by Sir T. Percy Nunn in the following words:

"We now recognise, at least in principle, that 'youth is the time for education,' and that youth, even the youth of the poor, lasts until the age of eighteen. University education excluded, there are three educational periods corresponding to three major waves of physical and mental growth. First, there is infancy, merging into childhood between six and eight. This is the period for education in the home or the nursery school where Froebel and Montessori should be the presiding deities. Next comes the wave of childhood, whose force is normally spent at the age not far from twelve. This should be for all children the period for 'primary education'; that is, for a common scheme of instruction and training that meets the intellectual and moral needs of childhood and supplies the indispensable basis for the education of youth. Lastly, there is the wave which carries the boy or girl through adolescence to the dawning of manhood or womanhood about the age of eighteen. This marks out the

period of 'secondary education.' The extension of this name to all forms of post-primary education is, admittedly, a violation of present usage, but is, nevertheless, highly desirable. For it emphasises a fact whose full recognition would be one of the greatest of educational reforms; namely, that the problems of educating youth,—whether the youth of the aristocracy—or the youth of the slums,—are but variants of a single problem, the problem of dealing fruitfully with a life period whose central fact is adolescence."

Thus the purpose of 'secondary' schools is not merely to 'afford a higher general education' as defined in the Educational Code of the United Provinces but something more than what is implied in this vague statement. The Hadow Report of England calls it 'a realistic or practical bias,' while the Hartog Committee Report puts it as "varied forms of training for life and employment, suitable for the large number of boys of varied attainments and circumstances in the secondary stage." Alexander Inglis of Harvard sets forth the aims of secondary education in the following words:—

"1. The preparation of the individual as a prospective citizen and co-operating member of society,—the Socio-Civic Aim.

2. The preparation of the individual as a prospective worker and producer,—the Economic-Vocational Aim;

3. The preparation of the individual for those activities which, while primarily involving individual action, the utilisation of leisure and the development of personality, are of great importance to society,—the Individualistic-Avocational Aim.

It must be recognised that these three aims are not mutually exclusive, but rather that they are in a high degree interrelated and interdependent. Taken together they constitute the Social Aim of Secondary Education in the broadest sense of the term.”*

The acute problem of unemployment among the educated classes in recent years led the Sapru Committee to suggest the new functions which the secondary schools of India should assume in the following terms :—

“Generally, we are of the opinion that our secondary schools should provide much more diversified courses of study, care being taken to give more practical than theoretical education to our boys. The industrial courses in secondary schools should aim at giving technical training of a general character designed to develop skill of hand and eye and cultivate practical aptitudes so as to predispose them towards industrial life. Proper agencies should be created for advising boys as to their careers.”†

Ideal and Reality.—It is one thing to realise and suggest what should be done to bring our secondary

* *Principles of Secondary Education*, Ch. X.

† *Report of the Unemployment Committee, U.P., 1935.*

education into a line with modern requirements and quite a different thing to get it done. The reform is a very complex process in which a large number of considerations have to play a part. Leaving aside all those matters which are beyond the scope of the schools themselves but which administrators of education cannot afford to ignore, the first difficulty that faces the present schools is the atmosphere and tradition which have grown around them as a result of their past existence. They cannot be envisaged as anything but a tangible index of the state of progress of the society or nation to whose needs they are required to cater, and it is impossible to change the life and activities of schools by a wave of the magic wand as it is impossible to change the condition of a society or a nation by a sweep of the pen. The strongest force with which educational reform has to reckon in this country is the peculiar conservatism which holds the teacher and the taught together in its folds and, unless the social background of our schools keeps on changing, the latter will not be able to achieve much by themselves. The society and the school have to march together.

The Atmosphere of Schools.—But there is the significant fact gaining ground every day that, if society brings into being and maintains schools, the schools in their turn exert certain peculiar and positive influences towards the transformation of society. If the social heritage of ages supplies the basic material

of the curriculum which has to be taught in schools the peculiar nature of school work, especially if it is conducted in an atmosphere of freedom by teachers endowed with learning, imagination, wisdom and sympathy and if it affords ample opportunities for creative self-expression on the part of the pupils, exerts a most profound influence on the progress of society through the pupils living and growing in, and constantly breathing, the bracing atmosphere of such schools.

To the old type of teacher, accustomed as he has always been to thinking from the adult end of the educational process, the new science of education may present real difficulties; he cannot easily persuade himself to discover the fallacy that lies in the traditional assumption of a static mass of social or racial experience commonly called 'knowledge' which must, in some way or another, be presented to the children. But the new educator knows very well that the basic idea of modern education is not the teacher's intention or ability to teach but rather the pupil's intention and ability to learn. It is not enough to think out, suggest or prescribe different subjects or activities for school children; it is not enough even to lay down clear instructions for the guidance of teachers; it is first of all very necessary to realise that, up to the age of adolescence, curricula and methods imposed from outside cannot do much good to the pupils but may do their unfolding nature a good deal of harm, unless

the process of education starts at the other end. As Dr. Montessori has put it in her characteristic way, "The essential thing is not to think of how to teach the child, or of how to influence him for his educational good, but of how to construct about him an environment adapted to his development, and then to leave him there to develop freely. . . . Its aim is not to influence him but correspond perfectly to his needs. . . . His environment has the characteristics of a revealing environment rather than of a moulding environment. The child reveals himself, his characteristics, his rhythm of life."*

Thus the ideal of true education cannot be achieved unless the schools can convert themselves into an environment which would strictly and faithfully correspond to the developmental requirements of the children. The realities of today seem ill-suited for the fulfilment of this new and noble ideal.

Basic Principles of Organisation.—Now we are in a position to state the main principles which should underlie secondary school organisation from the inside. First and foremost, headmasters, teachers, pupils and their guardians must realise that the secondary school is primarily a place of organised activity, both physical and mental, with a clear moral aim behind such activity. This activity, although apparently imposed

* TOWARDS A NEW EDUCATION: *Report of the Elsinore Conference*, 1929; Ch. XII.

from the outside, is really meant to correspond to, and supply normal natural requirements of, the stages of development of the pupils. Hence modern school organisation must be characterised by:—

(a) *Comprehensiveness*, covering and regulating the life of pupils practically for the whole day for a period of seven or eight years and deliberately looking after their physical as well as intellectual interests.

(b) *Efficiency*, indicating in clear terms the method or methods by which the progress of scholars is ensured and recorded and a certain high or satisfactory standard of work is maintained year after year in a demonstrable manner.

(c) *Economy*, from the point of view of money as well as time and effort, in return for which the pupils are expected to acquire practical efficiency, character and culture to the satisfaction of themselves and the country at large.

(d) *Progressive Outlook*, which implies that schools cannot afford at any time to think and say that their methods are perfectly satisfactory and hence can resist change or reform. Conservatism becomes a dead formality unless it is alive to the needs of the changing times. School organisation must have sufficient scope for elasticity and must be adaptable to the trends of the natural process of evolution. "The past needs no defence. Its fundamental soundness may be taken for granted. Out

of it has come all the good of the present and will come all the better of the future. But the true way to honour the past is to improve upon it. The only way to preserve it is to search out its weaknesses and to remedy them. On the other hand, there is no universal solvent for pedagogical difficulties, nor will there ever be. As fast as one small problem of school management is mastered another one will be confronted. Progress must be slow and always difficult. Every slight contribution puts the art on a higher plane and every step forward is infinitely worth while because it brings us not to the goal but to the next step.”*

(e) *Co-operation.* A natural corollary of this idea is that a spirit of co-operation and confidence should pervade the school atmosphere, there being no domination exercised by the Secretary or the Manager of a school over the Headmaster or by the latter over his staff. The words ‘control’ and ‘discipline’ lose their aggressive and personal nature in progressive society and the school society can work most efficiently if all teachers feel that they have a real responsibility towards children and enough freedom to shoulder that responsibility and that merely following prescribed instructions and trying to please their headmaster in any way other than through successful school work cannot help them or do good to anybody. Efficiency and progress cannot be achieved by schools in India

* BENNETT: *School Efficiency*, Ch. I

unless a more respectable, responsible and liberal relation springs up between management and headmasters on the one hand and between headmasters and teachers on the other than is prevalent as a general rule at the present time.

A Hindu View of Education.—The word 'Hindu' used here must not be taken in a narrow communal sense, for the conception of man's early training briefly described here is what ancient Indian literature and philosophy considered as the only sure and possible basis of a sound, happy and well-lived human life. There is another reason why it is necessary to consider the matter here. Modern educational philosophy, by laying emphasis on the child and on his moral, social and spiritual training, seems to be leading to all those ideas which were included in ancient India within the theory of training young human mind by means of *Brahmacharya*. This oft-quoted word is very much misunderstood by being popularly interpreted as incontinence, whereas it is meant to imply that process of physical and mental discipline in the early years of human life which would provide a rich and sound fund of force and energy to the young body and mind in order to enable it to sustain the strain of a ceaseless activity of the memory, judgment and creative power. Mere knowledge and information, however vast, can never be the foundation of intelligence or life ; it can only be a part of the material out of which the knower builds knowledge but the power

that uses this material and brings fresh material for new requirements can be acquired and retained by the process of slow, patient and sustained mental and physical discipline which has been carefully described as the practice of Brahmacharya in ancient Indian literature.

The human being has been described as a receptacle or *ādhāra* for the storing and transmission of that universal power or energy which pervades creation, and the practice of Brahmacharya is said to bring about a continuous improvement in the receptacle and its functioning,—a steady progress towards the goal for which the process of evolution stands. The natural corollary of this theory is that the more we can increase and enrich the energy of the receptacle the greater will be the range, power and activity of its functions. The attention of the teacher has to be diverted from the imparting of knowledge and information to the adoption of all possible means for the training and strengthening of the powers of the body and the mind,—in other words, adoption of Brahmacharya as an essential means of education in the first stage of human life.

Thus, whether we think in terms of ancient Indian philosophy or modern western theories, we come to the same conclusion: the need and importance of giving the child and the youth that physical and mental discipline which will create the power of self-control and lead to a sort of easy and joyous internal

illumination so essential for making the acquisition of knowledge and other intellectual operations easy, spontaneous, swift, decisive and comparatively exhilarating to body or brain.

It lies with our schools to direct all their methods of teaching and organisation towards the laying of a solid and sure foundation of human life instead of continuing to carry on the hopeless task of perpetuating mediocrity in the land.

Scope of School Management: (a) *Organisation*.—A high standard of organisation should be evident in such matters as classification of pupils, work of teachers, functions of the office and menial staff, arrangement and use of apparatus, furniture and other material aids to instruction, neatness and care of the whole building and its compound, including the playground and garden. The visitor should feel that the school is so carefully organised that teachers, pupils and servants all think and act as if the institution were their own.

(b) *Supervision*.—But no organisation can be left to itself for proper functioning. Constant supervision of all its details is absolutely essential and this supervision has to be jointly exercised by the headmaster, teachers and senior pupils. Among other matters the following need careful attention :—

(i) On the Teaching side,—the time-table, home-study, progress of scholars and methods of teaching.

- (ii) For Physical efficiency,—organised games, sports, graded physical training and matches and competitions;
- (iii) For proper Discipline and moral training,—obedience to school laws, class emulation, scouting, social service and active contact with important events and personalities.
- (iv) For Outside Relations,—wholesome contact with parents, guardians, other schools, public bodies and prominent officials and non-officials.

The success of the whole organisation will depend on the place which the school creates for itself, and maintains, in the esteem and estimation of the society or community in whose midst it happens to exist.

CHAPTER II

THE SCHOOL PREMISES

Site and Surroundings.—Although teachers have no hand in the selection of the site of school buildings it is a fact that schools are generally constructed in places which are open and spacious enough, although their situation has to be in close proximity of the population whose interests they have to serve. If there is plenty of open space all around the school building it would be the duty of the headmaster and his staff to make full use of such space with the object of providing that indirect educational influence which attracts and enriches the imagination of children and supplies wholesome nourishment to their emotions. Without a healthy, beautiful and refreshing environment which soothes the eye and pleases the soul the intellectual forces of teachers and pupils will fail to function at their best and the ultimate moral benefit to their nature will be reduced a good deal.

It should not be difficult to provide a decent, uncrowded approach to the school building and give evidence of imagination and a sense of decency and beauty on the part of the school staff through well-arranged play areas, flower-beds and pathways on different sides of the main building. The whole thing

does not cost much, although the execution and maintenance of the arrangements require organisation of labour and constant supervision of this organisation. It is needless to add that a major portion of this labour has to come from the staff and students of the school and that the return for such labour would be a form of efficiency of which Indian schools are generally innocent at the present time.

In the case of those schools which do not possess ample space or suffer from crowded or unwholesome surroundings an essential duty on the part of the staff and students would be to utilise the disadvantages with the object of educating the children and, through them, the population of the locality in putting forth joint efforts to improve the general condition of the whole area. Crowded streets, heavy traffic, stagnant drains and rubbish heaps should serve as a challenge to the school authorities and provide numerous occasions for giving practical training to pupils in 'safety first,' first aid and personal and community hygiene. Regular practical training of this nature will ultimately result in the formation of valuable habits and creation of a sense of social responsibility so necessary for the welfare of the community and the nation.

The School Grounds.—The playground and a few other smaller areas for different games are to be considered at least as important for educational purposes as school buildings with their classrooms and other

paraphernalia. In India indoor instruction must be considered as an exception rather than the rule. Thousands of open air classes held in rural areas and such open air schools as the Gurukula or the Shantiniketan should be considered as the normal state of affairs, especially because the successful working of similar institutions in various western countries seems to be finding favour to a growing extent all over the world.

If play is to be accepted as the natural agency for the education of the child up to the age of puberty, then the lower half or more of our schools will have to think and act not in terms of rooms, seats or desks but rather in terms of activities, games or 'projects' which can be conducted only in the open. Hence schools will have to adopt sensible, sound and satisfactory means for providing open spaces, garden-plots, play areas, sufficient ground spaces under shady trees and so on for different types of school work, and the disposition of such areas together with the necessary pathways will automatically indicate the spirit guiding the school authorities in this respect.

As a general rule the flower-beds should grow plants according to the requirements of Nature Study, while the hedges, shrubs, creepers and trees would be of the common, hardy and perennial variety. The paths should be so made that they are most convenient to use and do not encourage shortcuts or trespassing across the lawns. It should not be forgotten that, as

a rule, beauty and utility at reasonable cost can be easily achieved and that only such arrangements should be made which can be conveniently managed later on.

A word about trespassing should receive the most serious attention here. The arrangement of paths, lawns and gardens implies that teachers and pupils will respect and use them in the proper way. It is a common fault with Indian children as well as adults that a due sense of propriety and respect for lawns is not shown by them; in fact, trespassing is a very common habit in this country. It lies with our schools to teach children that walking must be done only on the roads and paths provided for the purpose, that fencing or railing automatically suggests a barrier not to be transgressed, that lawns are not to be trodden on with heeled shoes, that flowers are not to be plucked at the first impulse but cut in the proper way, if necessary, and so on. Taken individually, these habits may not mean much; taken collectively, they indicate self-control, respect for property and a sense of responsibility,—indispensable qualities in an educated person.

The School Building.—The primary duty of the teaching staff lies in maintaining the school building as they get it in the best of conditions and in using it for producing the best educational results. The teacher may not have a voice in the construction of the building, but he can certainly see that all the doors and windows are fully opened and the floor, the

corners, the glass panes and the furniture are dusted and cleaned every day. In fact the attitude shown by teachers towards such matters produces a corresponding habit in their pupils and sometimes carries over into the homes of the latter.

It is not enough for the teacher to teach his pupils in the classroom; he must train them in the care and protection of the school building and property. And the younger the child the greater the need and scope for this training. Unlike many European countries, the Indian child is not habitually destructive; perhaps he is too subdued or docile for the purpose. But it is a fact that, if he does not break glass panes or deface walls and doors, he does not show much love for the school property either. At best he is indifferent to the school building, although at time we come across a child who cannot move about the building without doing something to it. Such pupils feel that the school belongs to no one and hence find a peculiar pleasure in defacing walls and doors or damaging glass panes as much as they dare.

"The remedy for this state of affairs—and herein is the teacher's responsibility—is twofold: first, that the building, however old and unworthy, be kept clean and free from all those disfigurements which indicate vandalism; and second, that with all the devices of instruction and training there be developed in the pupils an interest in the building and a pride in its appearance. The child who has actively contributed

to the cleaning of walls, whether by his labour or by his pennies, will vigorously defend them against further defacement. The boy who takes a pride in putting his scrawls or carvings on a public wall will take a far greater pride in putting a coat of paint there. They simply like to do *something* to them. Though they do not look very far ahead they want to see the results of their activities. Almost any boy would rather help put a windowpane in than to break one out."*

The manner in which the whole building is kept and used indicates the kind of training imparted to pupils in neat, sensible and corporate living, which is one of the fundamental aims of school life.

Classrooms.—The size of classrooms is determined by the number of scholars to be accommodated in them and, according to regulations which prescribe 15 sq. ft. of floor space to each scholar, limits their number too. It is a wrong practice to overcrowd classrooms with seats, desks, the blackboard and the teacher's furniture so as to render cleaning and free movement difficult.

The arrangement of seats and desks with reference to the doors and windows, the position of the blackboard with reference to the class, the fittings and furniture inside the rooms and similar other matters, should be guided by hygienic considerations. The hall, the museum, the library, the laboratory, the office,—in fact,

* BENNETT: *School Efficiency*, Ch. III.

all the rooms should always give evidence of tidiness and systematic arrangement and be free from dust, dirt and overcrowding. Carelessness and indolence are almost synonymous terms when applied to school conditions and no teacher or pupil can afford to give evidence of the existence of either fault in their school life. Not only during teaching periods when teacher and taught are together in the classrooms but also during intervals and between two periods when teachers and pupils are moving about or passing from room to room there should be visible a sense of decency and discipline in them, and this is possible only when the necessary habits have been formed in them.

The godowns, water-rooms, store-rooms and the servants' quarters all equally require regular inspection on the part of the headmaster, but what is very important is a proper supervision of the closets and latrines. They must be kept clean and in a sanitary condition and the drains washed out right up to their end. The self-respecting school will not tolerate uncleanness anywhere and, if filthy writing or drawing is discovered anywhere, efforts should be made to eradicate the evil at once lest it should grow into a dirty tradition. It is not easy to achieve this aim, especially if the standard of refinement of the community is low, but no teacher can afford to tolerate such conditions. If necessary the school authorities will have to exercise ever-lasting vigilance in this respect, for it is only in

this way that decency and refined habits can be formed in the children.

The Hostel.—The manner in which ideal home conditions are reproduced in hostel life is the index of the attitude of the school authorities towards the welfare of the boarders. The problem is not one of letting the inmates live somehow or other but rather to teach them how to live well not only as individuals but also together in close association with others coming from homes with varying traditions of life and custom. The hostel superintendent must be a man of imagination, sympathy, patience and ideals and should be able to provide external and internal conditions of life, which should not only supply food and shelter to the pupils but also open their minds to possibilities of better living.

The details of this matter will be discussed in a subsequent chapter. The headmaster, however, cannot divest himself of his responsibility towards the inmates of the hostel by leaving all work to the warden; he has to visit the hostel, especially the kitchens, bathrooms and latrines, periodically and bestow personal attention on all those matters which affect the well-being of the children, who should find in him an ideal father and a trustworthy friend.

The Playground.—The educational importance of the playground is not yet fully realised in this country, for it is a sad fact that, while pupils do want to run about and play all sorts of games, teachers

consider it irksome to attend the playground with them. They do not feel it a pleasure to play with the children ; they generally do not know how to play properly.

It is a common belief that games like football, hockey and cricket are the only games for which playgrounds exist, which naturally means that teachers ignorant of these games are of no use on the playground. But, along with the spread of scouting and physical training, with their innumerable purposeful games and organised activities, and the steady increase in the number of indigenous games, like *kabaddi* and *atya patya*, included in physical activities, our teachers should feel that the carrying out of a well-conducted playground scheme is at least as important from the educational point of view as teaching in the classrooms according to a prescribed time-table.

It is quite imaginable that our schools at present are generally understaffed, with the result that a sufficient number of qualified teachers are not available for imparting training to pupils on the playground in a satisfactory manner. This only shows that schools do not yet realise their responsibility in this respect or feel that, unless ample provision is made for training the physique and character of the children on the playground, their duty towards the rising generation of the land remains incomplete or only partly fulfilled.

Headmasters and teachers have to attend the playground regularly, see that the ground is marked

properly for the various games and that different areas are set apart for different games and exercises. A little of personal interest shown by the headmaster will go a long way towards creating the right kind of respect not only for the playground but also such cognate matters as care of the material and apparatus, attendance of teachers and pupils, proper training of the latter through different games and activities and establishment of a tradition by which good players and genuine sportsmen are produced in a regular stream from the bottom to the top of the whole school. Future leaders of the country can be created only by a careful and judicious training both inside the classroom and on the playground, and the outlook of the school can be tested better by an inspection of the latter than of the former.

Where big playgrounds are not available the courses open to schools are, firstly, to use all available space for providing games requiring smaller areas, *e.g.*, volley-ball, *kabaddi*, etc., and, secondly, to take steps to get access to waste lands lying within a reasonable distance of the school with the permission of their owners, to take lease of them for a long term and then, with the help of the pupils, adapt and prepare them for the purpose of school games. The fact is that 'where there is will there is a way' and that such activities on the part of schools always receive genuine support from the public if they are

convinced that such measures are for the ultimate good of their children.

Outlook and Efficiency.—The time has come when most teachers and pupils should revise their old and meaningless notions of respectability and learn how to do useful work with their own hands. If they have to spend six hours every day in close contact with rooms and furniture the cleanest possible condition of the latter should be realised as indispensable to healthy living. No one is above keeping his own things clean and tidy and consequently all children have to learn how to do so at home, at school or anywhere else. It is not a question of means but rather one of habits or standards, and schools should consider it a duty, nay, a privilege, to set and exact the right standards of living. We have yet to learn the great truth that it is cheaper to be neat and orderly than to be slovenly.

The peculiar sanitary dangers to which schools, with their heterogeneous population, are constantly exposed throughout the year seriously require that teachers should never be lax in their essential duty of training pupils in correct habits of neat, tidy and hygienic living. All must feel that dust is the greatest danger to health and hence they must take care to see that dust is not allowed to accumulate in the classroom, on the desks or furniture or anywhere else. The broom of the sweeper or the dusters used for wiping furniture do not really remove the dust; they

merely move it from one place to another, while the cloth duster used by teachers for cleaning blackboards is a convenient agency for scattering chalk dust all around. Large cloth dusters which can collect the dust while wiping are very useful but they should be washed frequently, and occasionally lightly oiled with kerosene. In any case, the danger from dust must be fully recognised and should form a most effective starting point for the teaching of useful habits of a practical nature to the pupils.

"It is due to the children that they should receive not only the suggestive values of good school house-keeping through the conditions of the premises and building but also the direct values through active participation in the process. Keeping a room thoroughly clean is a fundamentally valuable educative experience for any boy or girl. Too many of them are deprived of this privilege at home. Dusting and "tidying-up" a room should become more genuinely pleasurable than enduring a room that lacks it. It is a poor class that would not rather keep its own room cleaned up than to have the task done in slipshod fashion by the janitor . . . Under wise guidance the children themselves will come to take a pride in the spotless condition of the room."*

In fact, the condition of the grounds, the walls, the floor and the furniture of a school is the best and

* BENNETT : *School Efficiency*, Ch. VIII.

clearest index of the ideal of decency of the life which teachers and pupils live at school ; it shows whether the school is properly setting a standard of life which would be an advance and improvement on the existing conditions and whether the school authorities are alive to their duty as social reformers of all ages and of all countries.

CHAPTER III

THE HEADMASTER AND HIS STAFF

Present Conditions Unsatisfactory.—The present body of our teachers and headmasters, being the products of and accustomed to an old order of things, do not appear capable of much adaptation in the light of new requirements which have already come upon the country. The full implications of the definitions of secondary education given in the first chapter of this book and of the requirements put forth in the Sapru Report and the Wardha Scheme are almost inconceivable to them. Like Byron's Prisoner of Chillon they may accept 'with a sigh' the coming release from the fourfold grip of Code, Curriculum, Method and Examination, but much cannot be expected of them, as a general rule, because most of them have lost the power which can enable them to see their pupils in any other light than as candidates for a future examination or examinations. The moral and spiritual needs of children are a problem which the educational machinery never required teachers to solve in a positive and deliberate manner during at least two generations.

The result has been a tradition with a most unfortunate effect on the educated population of the land, with the teaching profession piously expected to

follow a lofty moral principle but actually kept tied down to a low standard of values. The teacher is paid very low salaries; there are absolutely no sensible or respectable leave rules in non-Government schools and colleges; frequently men with no sound educational ideas dominate the management of such institutions. Headmasters, too, have to adopt all sorts of means to keep to their places lest at their advanced age and with proportionate family responsibilities they should be thrown out of employment into the deadly grip of starvation. With insecurity of tenure as a general rule and with no one to help them in the real sense of the term, teachers naturally act in a spirit of self-protection, and thus the vicious circle goes on and sometimes grows in diameter. The ultimate result has naturally come to be the present highly unsatisfactory state of affairs,—a high and noble but impossible ideal to be gazed at from far below by schools which are simply weltering in a pool of demoralisation and degradation.

The only way out of the tangle seems to lie with the teachers themselves. Until the time the administrative policy of the country deliberately decides to raise the status of teachers and organise the whole body into a secure and respectable profession, teachers will have to combine together to help and inspire one another and try to save the noblest of professions from being perpetually considered as the meanest of vocations. The recent formation of 'Teachers' Associations

all over India is a healthy sign and the larger the number of members of these associations the better for the welfare of the teachers individually as well as collectively.

In all endeavours headmasters have to join hands with the teachers and constantly help and guide them with their mature experience and strengthen them with the advantages and influence which their position carries with it. If schools have to exist as model social institutions there must be no friction between headmasters and teachers; perfect understanding and sincere co-operation should be the guiding principle of all their activities. The fundamental requirements noted below should be considered as essential for the headmaster as for the teacher.

Knowledge of the Essentials of Education.—Every teacher must have a clear knowledge not only of the subject which he is called upon to teach but also of child-nature,—the stages of his development, the chief mental and physical characteristics of each stage of development and the correct requirements at each stage.

Without the latter knowledge teaching means practically nothing, for it is a living, growing and changing human child,—nay, a group of such children, which constitutes the central problem of instruction. And modern educational philosophy tells us that, during a major portion of school life, the pupils do not so much require instruction in 'subjects' as training

in fundamental habits, which means that the teacher must possess a clear perception of those principles which govern the formation of character and conduct in young human beings in addition to those which determine and guide the methods of teaching different subjects of the curriculum. The *personality* of the growing child must receive the first attention of the teacher and naturally requires that he should always be guided in his educational efforts by the essential principles of psychology, ethics, sociology and physiology.

Personal and Professional Efficiency.—Human nature being what it is, teachers as professional men with national responsibilities to shoulder must constantly prevent themselves from falling behind or gliding backwards in the scale of progress. There is no crying halt in nature, which means that one must either move forward or slide backward. And the only two ways in which the teacher can keep up his efficiency are study and meditation. His study should include not only professional literature and the best thoughts of the best teachers of all countries but also those subjects which throw light on the social, moral, and cultural sides of human nature; he should not only be familiar with the best methods of teaching but also keep in constant touch with the noblest and most inspiring thoughts of poets, philosophers and masters of literature.

But this equipment is not enough, for he has to work as an integral part of an organisation. He

cannot afford to fall a victim to arrogance or a professional 'superiority complex',—a common and irritating temptation among technical professional men. A true scholar and teacher is honest, humble and tactful enough to have the utmost consideration for other people's feelings and, with an inner illumination born of study and meditation, he radiates love, light and life on all sides rather than create heat and dazzle. If he has any self-respect, sincerity and decency, he will always think of maintaining his own efficiency in order that he may be a model of speech, thought and conduct to his pupils and not that he may produce impression of his superiority on the public.

He must also keep physically fit through a sensible method of living and taking proper care to conserve, in order to use, physical energy. A deep respect for one's body and health is very much needed in India today and the teacher who can set an example of enthusiasm for hard work, both physical and mental, and of that attitude which deliberately scorns delight and lives laborious days would be doing greater service to the country than he who shows irritability, depression, impatience and other forms of nervous weakness caused by lessened vitality and constant fretting. First of all, he should be a real man with real human joy and physical vitality; he must always remember that worry over matters which he cannot help is useless, avoidable and fraught with dangerous consequences and that it is a noble plan,

when worry does come, to set against it faith and love,—faith in the ultimate good of all honest work and love for the children entrusted to his care.

"The mightiest personal power that any teacher can hope to have is love for his pupils The teacher who can love his pupils to obedience, love them to industry, love them to loving him, has mastered the whole secret of personality and power. It is not hard to do. It is merely knowing them well, respecting the souls of them, and finding the goodness that is in every one of them. Knowledge begets sympathy, sympathy begets love, and love is the mysterious solvent of all sorts of difficulties that arise in school, in the home, or wherever human beings deal with one another."*

It is this unbounded love for children, the ability to understand their ways, their thoughts, their feelings, the desire to study the innermost workings of their mind and to be their tolerant companion and trusty friend that only can enable the teacher to keep up his efficiency through real knowledge of child nature.

Co-operation.—But mere personal efficiency cannot wholly create that professional efficiency without which school work can never become a unified whole. We must cease to think merely in terms of separate groups or classes, with its attendant evils, waste through repetition or duplication and incomplete treatment of

* BENNETT: *School Efficiency*, Ch. XXXI.

child nature. If the process of school training is to be a continuous one then it is inevitable that all teachers should frequently meet together and act in close co-operation, each knowing his own part in the whole process. Piecemeal training is the characteristic of our present system in schools, teachers seldom caring to know what has been done before, how it has been done and what is coming after the children leave them.

It is certainly a primary duty of headmasters to see that at least the teachers of the same subject act in close consultation and co-operation and that all phases of school work are managed with the sole object of ensuring unity of the process of training imparted to the pupils. It will also be necessary to extend this principle of consultation and co-operation beyond the school if some corrective is to be applied to the false pride which individual schools might acquire in course of time. A knowledge of what other teachers in other schools are doing, purposeful visits to other institutions, a regular study of the methods and experiments of teachers in progressive countries and a critical attitude towards one's own methods and practices will always help teachers to keep up their personal and professional efficiency.

Teachers' Rights and Duties.—The idea that teachers are mere employees, like ordinary labourers, and can be appointed or dismissed in a light-hearted manner must be given up, if schools are to command

respect and confidence in the country. The appointment of a teacher is a form of honourable contract which must not be broken without sufficient reason. It is not an economic problem at all and one cannot too strongly condemn the growing tendency in some quarters to replace old and experienced teachers by fresh ones simply because the latter are less expensive. If teachers are expected to exert moral influence on the children and mould their conduct and character through noble thoughts and nobler personal example, the longer they serve in the school the better for all concerned. In fact, their professional and spiritual value increases with the period of their stay in service in the same environment, if they do not get dull, mechanical and atrophied.

Even as ordinary employees having family cares and responsibilities they have the fundamental right of knowing their terms of employment and of being assured of security of tenure, reasonable leave at times of necessity and old-age relief, provided their work and conduct are satisfactory. Managers of institutions must adopt the principle that the continued employment of teachers will depend only on their fitness for the work and on no other consideration.

Once employed they should be free from interference although they are not to suppose that they would be exempt from such legitimate impositions as supervision of their superiors and the prescribed rules and regulations governing the whole organisation.

But headmasters, managers and other supervisors should remember that all such restrictions or requirements refer to the broad essentials only and not to the details which must be left to the teacher's originality, initiative and skill. All teachers must know the prescribed rules and regulations so that they may know how much scope there exists for the display of their personal skill; the laws are meant to indicate the limits within which the teacher is 'master of his own house'. If he is worth his salt he would never stick to the prescribed minimum of work but always try to do more than is 'required' of him. The teacher who resents any work not prescribed is always the cause of undesirable irritation and friction in the school society. A sensible teacher seldom parades his rights and privileges while protesting against additional duties on every occasion; he has tact enough to make a permanent place for himself in the school organisation by honest hard work in the belief that his rights and privileges will automatically take care of themselves.

The Headmaster.—"What the mainspring is to the watch, the fly-wheel to the machine or the engines to the steamship, the headmaster is to the school. . . .

"It must not only be known by his staff and scholars that he is their master by appointment, but *felt* that he *is* their master by superior ability, energy and character. . . .

"He has to be as nearly omniscient, omnipotent and ubiquitous as it is permitted to man to be. . . .

"The headmaster, who is a mere teacher or mere clerk or combination of both, has been ill-chosen for his post (or perhaps arrived at it by the 'crass seniority' which has such a universally paralysing effect wherever rampant) and is either ignorant of, or indifferent to, the true functions of the holder of the office—which are those of organiser, leader, governor, business-director, co-ordinator, superintendent, example, guide, philosopher, and friend."^{*}

It is not difficult to amplify all these and other qualities required in the man who is to be in charge of a school, but the fact is that such men are only rarely found and that men who are generally found as headmasters happen to possess only a few of the required qualities. In the ultimate analysis of things human nature perhaps likes to be guided by some leader, and it is an open question whether personal domination or organised control exercised by a body of human beings is liked best or results in the greatest good to individuals and societies. In the school society, however, it has always happened that the best results have followed from work and activities under the personal care and influence of a noble headmaster and that the dictum that the school is the headmaster is almost a truth. But the fact is that no headmaster

^{*} P. C. WREN: *Indian School Organisation*, Ch. I.

can succeed in doing anything useful unless he can patiently and tactfully create an atmosphere of confidence and co-operation in the school, not only working hard himself but also getting hard work out of his staff and students. A sound knowledge of human nature coupled with an ability to manage that nature in others is perhaps the greatest quality possessed by all successful headmasters.

Relation with Teachers.—In his relations with the teaching staff he must act in a spirit of co-operation, letting each know the particular responsibility entrusted to him and the manner in which he would judge the work performed by each. Merely handing over the printed curriculum to a teacher is not enough; the details of each week's work, the standard to be attained by the pupils at the end of the year's training, the method or methods by which such a standard can be attained, the nature of physical education to be successfully imparted to the pupils, supervision of such matters as the supply of drinking water and refreshments, issue and use of library books and games material, sanitation of the building and premises by different members of the staff,—in fact, all possible details of school work must be freely discussed and the whole responsibility shared with the teachers, so that they may all feel that they are as much responsible for the tone, discipline and the general welfare of the whole institution as the headmaster or manager or anyone else. This is perhaps

the only method by which the headmaster can achieve the object for which the school stands.

Towards new and young teachers he has a special duty to perform. He should know that such teachers are not finished products but merely novices in their work, although endowed with more energy, enthusiasm and high ideals than the older teachers. The most sensible way of dealing with such men is certainly not to curb and degenerate them but properly to guide and direct their enthusiasm along proper channels, giving them suitable responsibility so that, through actual work, they acquire correct perspective, real experience and a sense of practical proportions. Nothing wrong can occur if such teachers are allowed to have their own way, under the actual school conditions, until they acquire a sensible outlook; perhaps, a good deal of useful novelty and influence would be infused through such new blood coursing through the veins of the school. The headmaster can never divest himself of the responsibility of continuing the training of new teachers under actual school conditions and gradually moulding them into efficient instruments to be used for the highest purposes of education.

One of the duties which headmasters seldom perform is to keep their staff fully informed of the prescribed rules and regulations, and particularly those concerned with the curriculum, methods of instruction, inter-school relations, leave and teachers' rights and privileges. The outlook and practices of

most of the present-day headmasters accustomed to a medieval 'confidential' theory are, to speak mildly about them, very narrow and not congenial to the growth of a tradition of responsible co-operation among the teaching staff. A more wholesome atmosphere would be created if headmasters take all teachers into confidence and cease to exercise petty tyranny over them from the position of domination and administration which they are supposed to occupy. A greater knowledge of laws, rules, rights, privileges and responsibilities would certainly make teachers better men and better workers.

In fact the headmaster must be a real leader of teachers sharing their difficulties and grievances and often stoutly upholding their cause where they are faced with unjust treatment in society. He must live and act as one of them and from his position of privilege and power teach the public that, while he does not tolerate the presence of unworthy persons on his staff, he does not stand any interference in their work or unmerited and loose criticism of his colleagues by people who do not generally know the details, difficulties and limitations of school work. Unless he possesses the tact and strength of a leader he cannot be worthy of his position.

Relation with Pupils.—The headmaster who sees the pupils only through the eyes of his assistants lacks in the essential quality of responsibility. Each teacher has his own way of knowing and studying children ;

the headmaster must do the same in his own way. It is not enough to know them by name or family connection only; what is far more necessary from the educator's point of view is to know their tastes and interests, their strong and weak points, their possibilities and limitations, so that he, along with the teachers, can guide them towards their ultimate destiny. "To take a young mind as it is, and delicately one by one to sound its notes and stops, to detect the smaller discords and appreciate the subtler harmonies, is more of an art than a science. The scientist may standardise the method; to apply that method and to appraise the results demands the tact, the experience, the imaginative insight of the teacher born and trained."*

Who but the headmaster is most fitted to be such an artist? The teachers have to be similar artists, but being busy with daily details of work they can at best be learning the children's ways and aspirations through the mixed practice of educational art and science. The headmaster, on the other hand, being comparatively free from such details, can easily look at the juvenile population of his school from a different angle of vision and constantly help his staff by suggestions on matters which naturally escape their notice. Studying pupils' emotions rather than their body or intellect is a most important function of the headmaster, and this is one of the reasons why the

* BURT: *Mental and Scholastic Tests*, p. XV.

duty of ultimate punishment has been reserved for him. He is not expected to be merely a machine for rewarding, promoting, or punishing pupils according to a fixed schedule; he has to go deeper into their nature and take steps to redirect their faults and shortcomings and inspire them towards great and noble efforts. He has to be in intimate touch with them to such an extent as to inspire awe, reverence and confidence rather than dread, indifference or antagonism in them. The wider the sphere of his personal influence over the school population the greater the possibility of converting the population into a wonderful body of worthy human beings.

"It should be borne in mind that every head teacher worthy of the name is generally regarded by his scholars as an ideal personality possessing extraordinary knowledge, and gifted, too, beyond the run of ordinary mortals. Honour, justice, truth are presumed to govern all his actions. This general and illimitable faith, combined with the reality of his own powers, are forces which he can direct to perfect the organisation and control of his school. The greatest care and circumspection are of course necessary if the scholar's ideal is to remain unsullied and unshattered amidst the daily provocations to which he is subjected. Self-watchfulness ought to be his constant sentinel."*

* BRAY: *School Organisation*, Ch IV.

Relation with Parents.—The conception of modern education is such that its realisation wholly depends on a close understanding, co-operation and association between teachers and parents. Between them they must clearly share the work of training children. It is, therefore, inevitable that parents should be genuinely interested in the work of schools with a view to seeing that their children are properly progressing under the fostering care of teachers. The adoption of all possible means to establish a strong and sympathetic link between the home and the school is one of the primary functions of the headmaster.

The connection which is naturally established between him and the parent at the time when the latter comes to admit his child to school must be followed up by such means as periodical reports of progress, visits to the homes and invitations to school functions. But such means may become quite formal unless real human relations are maintained. Courteous and considerate attention to complaints and requests from parents is a wise course which should generally be adopted by headmasters, who should, however, be firm on such matters as punctuality, attendance and attention to home work and other school requirements. Many of the home traditions and practices will be found militating against the efforts of the school to create and maintain important habits in the children, and it is here that the headmaster can score some of

his winning points through tact, sympathy and firmness, by educating the parents and reorienting their beliefs and practices through the strongest instrument to be handled in the situation, *viz.*, the great love which parents have for their children and their spirit of sacrifice in the cause of their welfare.

Parents should always be allowed to visit the school, discuss their doubts and difficulties with teachers in presence of the headmaster and gradually come to have confidence and faith in the school. If this last object has been achieved the school need not worry about its reputation and success, for a co-operating parent is the most effective of all the means of advertisement which any school can possibly adopt. It must, however, be realised that the headmaster alone can never create this confidence and faith in his school; all his teachers acting in unison with him have to convince parents and the public that the sole purpose for which the school works steadfastly is the highest welfare of the pupils and the method followed is a reasonably high standard of work and conduct on their part.

Two Great Needs of the Day.—The steady degeneration of the rising population of India caused primarily by physical and moral indolence should lead headmasters and teachers, because they are responsible for the welfare of children, to attend strenuously to the two great needs of the day, *viz.*, a lofty sense of duty and the power to inspire,—both

belonging to the domain of morals but both essential elements of collective human existence. Unless headmasters can sacrifice their lives to a lofty sense of duty and infect their colleagues and pupils with noble sentiments, teachers cannot be expected to live for duty's sake or to lead their pupils towards noble ideals through sustained endeavour. The special 'man-making' function of educational institutions cannot be performed by headmasters and teachers who are incompetent due to a partial or total absence of these two qualities; the greater the effort of State and Society to employ persons having them as teachers the better for the ultimate good of the land. An incompetent doctor is dangerous for the physical welfare of the patient; an incompetent teacher, as defined above, is much more dangerous to the nation since he not only maims and injures the mind of the children but also stunts their growth and cramps their very soul. The right man must be put at the right place and the right teacher is he who, apart from the question of scholarship or technical skill and greatly transcending them, possesses a high sense of duty, which includes love for his work and general purity of character, and the ability to infuse that sense of duty and breathe inspiration into the whole school.

It should, however, be carefully noted here that stress is now-a-days laid not so much on the domination of the teacher's personality as on his understanding of children. "The teacher of the future will be

less concerned with impressing his personality on his pupils than with gaining as much insight as he can into the personalities of his pupils, and trying to find in each of them the lamp that illuminates and the spring that motivates It is the part of himself that inspires his pupils—the part which kindles a joyous endeavour from within instead of imposing a dead pressure from without—it is this that will be remembered in future years with gratitude and affection by his pupils.”*

* BALLARD : *The Changing School*, Ch. VII.

CHAPTER IV

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL WORK

General Principles.—The system of “classes” in schools and colleges has become so familiar to us that we generally forget the purpose and implications of such classification. The curriculum prescribes not only courses of study but also text-books for the various classes; the Code contains instructions issued in terms of classes; teachers, headmasters, parents and pupils all think so much in terms of classes that any change in the current form of organisation in any particular school is almost impossible. But the fact is that, if the aim of school education is the harmonious development of pupils, each of them must receive individual attention and training. The individual pupil is the ultimate and real unit in the school, although merely for reasons of convenience and economy the whole school population has to be broken up into working units, which must have as their main characteristic some sort of homogeneity for purposes of instruction and training. In this connection it is necessary to discuss some important general considerations.

(a) *The Class.* No class can ever be homogeneous for school purposes. Even for the purpose of

teaching, a class, however homogeneous it may be in the beginning of the session, soon ceases to be so on account of the fact that different children learn, work and progress at different rates. The fact of individual differences has to be recognised if injustice is to be avoided to a large number of scholars, and, since it is not possible to consider a class as a homogeneous unit for all school subjects and for all school activities, it is inevitable that headmasters will have to organise and reorganise the school population in different ways for different purposes and at different times. Even teachers, in charge of particular classes, will have to alter the grouping of their pupils from time to time according to the needs of particular subjects, if the ultimate aim of education is to be properly realised.

Thus, the system of classification of scholars, while sticking to a general principle of maximum homogeneity, must be characterised by

(b) *Elasticity*. If it is not possible to have different schemes of work for different classes in the same school, it is certainly possible for the headmaster to explain to his staff the real meaning of the term 'elasticity' and expect from them not a blind and mechanical adherence to the letter of the scheme but rather a large-hearted, warm and intelligent adoption of the real spirit of the organisation. It is the teacher who must modify his ways and methods to meet the requirements of individual pupils, supply work suited to the dull, average and bright groups even within

the same class, provide opportunity for independent work and study, and watch and regulate the progress of his pupils, in addition to teaching and 'finishing the prescribed course.' A study of the vast literature connected with such experiments and developments as the Dalton Plan, the Project Method, the Batavia and Winnetka Systems and the Gary schools shows that, if traditional teaching has to be substantially supplemented by the stimulation of effort in the pupils, both individual and collective, then no one hard-and-fast system of organisation can be adopted by schools with success for a considerable length of time.

Real elasticity, however, lies not in the time-table of the school but in the methods of the headmaster and his staff, who should be prepared to modify and adapt the prescribed curriculum, give up the habit of self-deception practised by 'finishing the course' and honestly and patiently train the pupils by making them work as hard as each is capable of doing and with the essentials extracted out of the curriculum. Group work and individual work both require elasticity in the time-table and in the teachers' methods both inside the class-room and on the playground.

(c) *Outline only.* Thus it is clear that time-tables, if they are to serve the real purpose of schooling, must not be too detailed and rigid and must not tie down teachers in those matters which are best left to their

sense of responsibility. A broad outline of distribution of time and work, supplemented by instructions regarding the details and preferably issued after consultation with the teachers concerned, would be found creating a much better and happier atmosphere in schools and with much more tangible and satisfactory results than the mechanical and rigid time-tables at present followed year in and year out in most of our schools.

It is essential that such outline time-tables should be supplemented by detailed class time-tables prepared jointly by the teachers in charge of different classes and that these time-tables are modified from term to term in the light of experience and requirements.

(d) *Comprehensiveness.* For generations our schools have been accustomed to looking upon a ten-to-four working day as the maximum period of their working life, with the result that bookish or literary training has always been accepted as the normal, and sometimes the only, function of a school. But we are now faced with a different state of affairs, with the result that the work of schools has expanded to a tremendous extent and that this work simply cannot be done between ten and four. There is a good deal to be done over and above the contents of our traditional time-tables and it is well-known that all the efforts of old-fashioned headmasters to find precarious places for new subjects and new activities on the existing time-tables by the process of cutting down the time so

long allotted to the 'old' subjects have miserably failed.

It is essential that both pupils and teachers have to devote more time and to do more work than they do at the present time, if the fullest value is to be realised from the modern reforms introduced in the school curriculum. The school time-table has to be very comprehensive, including home work, school work, afternoon games and social activities, and indicating clearly the training (as well as the application of that training) to be imparted to the pupils in matters physical, intellectual and moral. Thus the modern requirements seem to call for school time-tables covering practically the whole day from morning till evening.

Classification of Scholars.—Before the question of framing the school time-table can be discussed it is necessary to classify the school population into suitable groups so that they can be instructed with convenience and with the best results. A large class is bound to suffer from *waste of effort*. "Except under careful and discriminating management, there is a strong tendency for the individual to become submerged in the mass, and hence a danger of the instruction being reduced to the level of machine work. Those probably who lose most under the existing practice are the clever children and the dull ones. There is necessarily a certain amount of waste effort which no foresight or device can entirely eliminate; it is incidental to the

mechanism of class routine, and to a smaller extent to class instruction ; the larger the class the greater must be the waste." *

The Educational Code limits the number of scholars who may be admitted into a particular class, but the number varies with different classes ; and, what is rather unfortunate, headmasters invariably adopt the policy of filling their classes up to and sometimes beyond the maximum limit, without taking care to see whether teachers in charge of such classes can manage to pay individual attention to their pupils. Mass considerations, or 'collectivism', as Wren calls it, has a few advantages, but "the few merits of collectivism grow less and less as a class increases beyond twenty-five, and disappear beyond forty (except for a few such lessons as vocal music or drill). Twenty is rather a small number and thirty-five is rather a large one. Twenty-five to thirty is the ideal. And the younger the boys the more real *teaching* and personal individual supervision they need ; therefore the lowest classes should be the smallest." †

An important investigation by Prof. Cyril Burt of London on the result of mass instruction along traditional lines will be referred to in the next chapter, but it seems to stand to reason that, if effective instruction is the aim of schools, the enrolment in the various classes must not be allowed to assume unmanageable

* BRAY : *School Organisation*, Ch. III.

† WREN : *Indian School Organisation*, Ch. III.

proportions and that the maximum limit prescribed in the Code should not be considered as the universal rule.

Admission and class promotion are matters which form the basis of periodical classification and reclassification of scholars in a school. The tests which generally form the basis of such classification are far from satisfactory and need a good deal of modification in the light of modern investigations. This point will be discussed in a subsequent chapter. But the assumption that classes are homogeneous for the purpose of instruction and progress is extremely faulty, for, while the teacher thinks he is finishing the prescribed course of studies, he knows very well that his pupils are not doing so; it is a fact that their attainments, in spite of revisions at the end of the school year, are far from being similar, uniform or satisfactory. Hence the need of different forms of classification within the general class system. For example, a scholar in Class V may possess exceptional talent in Arithmetic or Drawing, while another may be rather weak in English. With a slight modification in the time-tables for Classes V and VI by having English, Arithmetic and Drawing of both the classes in the same periods, such brilliant and weak scholars can work with their respective subjects in the higher or lower classes as the case may be. "Cross classification" and "Departmental Teaching" referred to by Bray,* or a system of

* *School Organisation*, Ch. IV.

'horizontal' classification cutting across the present 'vertical' classification for special purposes, will be found necessary if all phases of school work have to receive proper attention and the monotony of the traditional class system relieved as much as possible. As a general rule the system of classes for teaching the subjects and of a cross-classification for imparting training in group activities would be found supplying the basis of classification of scholars in a school. And, whatever the system followed, it will always be necessary to keep an eye on the two extreme groups that always occur in every class, *viz.*, the 'bright' group and the 'weak' group with a view to giving them the right kind of training over and above the mass methods adopted in the case of the average majority. This, however, is more a question of teachers' methods than of school organisation.

Time-Tables.—In spite of the fact that, in each province, a separate Department of Public Instruction controls the whole educational organisation and that there are Inspectors of Schools in each educational area, school time-tables do not indicate variety in the total length of the school day, in the amount of time allotted to different subjects and in the length of the various periods. The minimum hours of school work prescribed in the Educational Code are seldom exceeded and new 'subjects' introduced by the simple process of squeezing them into the existing time-tables by cutting down the periods allotted to other subjects.

Naturally, teachers are not satisfied with the time allowed for the different subjects and there is a sort of grumbling against making the curriculum too heavy. This matter will be discussed in the next chapter but it is a fact that our schools have become slaves to the traditional time-table to such an extent that they cannot think of easily introducing elasticity and other forms of necessary modification in them and that they do not like the idea of increasing the duration of the school day. But, if a little serious thought is given to the basic principles of a school time-table, it will easily be found that the traditional conditions have to be modified to a considerable extent if the modern conception of education is to be carried out in practice. Some of the prominent defects of the existing time-tables are: (a) extreme rigidity; (b) same lengths of periods for all subjects and also for the same subject on different days of the week; (c) same length of periods for small children as well as for the more grown-up scholars; (d) scanty provision for physical education and games; (e) thoughtless distribution of time among the various subjects. The following discussion will show how these defects can be remedied with a little serious regard to the various principles involved :—

1. The length of a period as well as the school day should increase with the age and 'span of attention' of the pupils. Hence they should vary with the junior and senior classes and, where this is not possible, teachers of junior pupils must be at liberty

to introduce variety in their teaching and get different kinds of work done in the same period.

2. Subjects should be distributed in such a manner that school work and exercises produce the least fatigue and keep up the uniformity of development in the pupils. Although real hardness seldom lies in any subject uniformly throughout its course and is generally closely associated with the teachers' 'methods' it is nevertheless true that 'hard' subjects like Arithmetic and Language (with its grammar) need careful places on the time-table. The best periods of the day, *viz.*, the second period or the period following the first recess, are usually most suitable for these subjects.

3. There should be alternation of intense and easier forms of work, of mental and physical application, of study and recreation. Subjects requiring little concentration should be reserved for the close of the day or for the period just before the long recess.

4. The time-table is a practical expression of the teachers' belief in the comparative value of subjects and of the emphasis laid on particular forms of training. So long the ten-to-four time-table clearly showed that the training of the intellect was the sole function of the schools; but, along with the widening of the curriculum, it seems necessary that the time-table should be extended at least up to sunset, including the various forms of physical activities along with such important matters as gardening, scouting and hand-work.

5. In fact, the general outline of a school timetable is to be determined by the principle that 'individual study' subjects (*e.g.*, Language, Arithmetic, History, etc.) should come first, the 'teaching' subjects (*e.g.*, Geometry, Geography, Theoretical Science, etc.) later on, and the 'practical' subjects (*e.g.*, Drawing, Hand-work, Practical Science, Nature Study, etc.) last of all, with Games and Recreations intervening.

6. From the point of view of the teacher, there should be an equitable distribution of teaching and correction work among the school staff, sufficient time being allowed for relief, study and consultation.

A Sample Distribution.—The following sample distribution of time among the various subjects prescribed for the Middle Sections of an Anglo-Vernacular School in the United Provinces would be found quite satisfactory, and it can easily be modified to suit the requirements of the lower or higher sections:—

English	10 periods per week.
Vernacular, First Form	...	7	" " "
" Second Form	...	2	" " "
Mathematics	...	6	" " "
History	...	3	" " "
Geography	...	3	" " "
Elementary Science, including Nature Study	...	4	" " "
Drawing and Hand-work	...	5	" " "
Hygiene	...	2	" " "

Total ... 42 periods per week.

Each period is of about 45 minutes' duration and the total length of the school day, including one short interval of ten minutes after the second period and one long interval of thirty minutes after the fourth period, will thus come up to six hours.

To this must be added at least three hours per week of physical training, games and scouting in the afternoon. The time-table, within such natural limitations as provision of teachers and consideration for the other classes of the school, may be like the following:—

9-55 A.M. Attendance.

10—10-45 A.M. History and Geography on alternate days.

10-45—11-30 A.M. English daily.

11-30—11-40 A.M. *Interval.*

11-40—12-25 P.M. Arithmetic daily.

12-25—1-10 P.M. Vernacular 1st Form daily.

1-10—1-40 P.M. *Interval.*

1-40—2-25 P.M. English four days and Vernacular 2nd Form two days.

2-25—3-5 P.M. Vernacular 1st Form (M.), Elementary Science (T., Fr.), Drawing and Hand-work (W., Th., Sat.)

3-5—3-45 P.M. Hygiene (M., Th.), Elementary Science (T., Fr.), Drawing and Hand-work (W., Sat.)

3-45—4-45 P.M. Long Break.

4-45—5-35 P.M. Organised Games (T., Th.),
Scouting (M., Fr.).

5-35—6-30 P.M. Physical Training (M., W., Sat.).

Substantial modifications are possible in this time-table, but it is reasonable to insist upon the inclusion of afternoon activities in the consolidated time-table for the particular class. It is high time that our schools began to show that they attached as much importance to the physical training of their scholars as to bookish instruction. In fact the physical training time-table should indicate the details of the activities to be taken on different days in much the same way as the ordinary school time-tables provide for such details as prose, poetry, translation, composition, etc. This is one of the ways in which schools can create the right kind of respect for the various physical and social activities inside them, the other way being to give a due consideration to the scholars' participation in such activities at the time of class promotion.

Fatigue.—The commonly repeated questions of over-work and fatigue are closely related to school work, and need special consideration in view of the above time-table, which appears much heavier than those at present in vogue in our schools. Careful experiments in Western countries have repeatedly shown that a healthy child under wholesome conditions can work practically at maximum efficiency at the close of the school day without the slightest injury. There need

be no fear of injurious fatigue among school children if the physical conditions are wholesome and satisfactory.

Fatigue is due more to the impaired functions of the vital processes than to too much work. Poor circulation of the blood, bad digestion, enlarged tonsils, nervous disturbance, lack of sleep, unwholesome food, worry, fear and other forms of emotional disturbance, etc. tend to cause fatigue in children rather than actual school work. Among the school conditions which cause fatigue mention may be made of such matters as eye-strain due to defective lighting or printing of reading matter, nerve strain due to uncomfortable or irritating conditions like wrong forms of discipline, bad postures, desks and seats, which also cause spinal strain and curvature, strain due to monotony of one kind of work, lack of stimulating activity or exercise with consequent clogging of the organs of excretion, unhygienic atmosphere, etc.

The so-called 'mental' fatigue is almost synonymous with lack of interest or dissipated attention, for which the teacher's attitude and method are largely responsible. If he can create in his pupils the feeling that the work to be done is worth doing and ensure that the physical conditions of the classroom are comfortable, wholesome and satisfactory, he need not worry about such matters as overwork or fatigue. He has to teach well with plenty of interest and 'motivation' for the tasks assigned,

frequent change of occupation, avoidance of distractions and interruptions and constant adaptation of work to the children's interests. Activity is their birth-right and they will go on working as long as they continue feeling the pleasure born of useful and successful activity, both mental and physical.

Specialists and Class-teachers.—One of the faults from which our schools suffer at the present time is the undue and indefensible importance attached to the specialist system, with the result that a teacher is put to teach the subject in which he has 'specialised.' I remember a case which shows to what ridiculous extent this specialisation system can carry teachers,—a case where a student at the Government Training College, a second class M. A. in History, said that he could not teach the Hindu Period of Indian History to Class IX as he was a specialist in the Muslim Period. For more reasons than one headmasters should require their staff to teach at least two different subjects and to at least two different classes, one of which must be a junior class. If specialisation leads to a narrow outlook in teachers then efforts must be made to widen such an outlook and it is in the junior sections that teachers can find ample scope for studying the ways of children with a view to keep their teaching methods constantly in a line with the varying life requirements of the latter. Young and enthusiastic but inexperienced teachers must be trained for their job in this way until they show that they

know how to teach subjects as well as growing human beings.

Schools exist particularly for children, whose growth and training are of much greater importance than a knowledge of subject matter. The primary physical, mental and social habits have to be formed in them and this task requires infinite patience, imagination and affection together with a real and accurate knowledge of child psychology. It is for this reason that the lowest classes of a school should be considered as the 'posts of honour' and entrusted to the best teachers, who, as 'class masters', should be allowed to keep in contact with the children as long as possible, *i.e.*, until the desirable habits have been firmly established in them. It does not necessarily mean that other teachers will not be sent to teach these classes; but the rule should be 'one good teacher as long as possible and one or two more for contrast and additional influence.'

Then, when the basic habits have been firmly established, and as the requirements of the various subjects continue to grow, the specialist teachers will gradually come in, but none of them can afford to ignore or neglect right up to the end of school life the primary physical, intellectual and social habits which give the scholars the basic structure of the edifice of their future life. The form of the man's future life has to be constructed to the greatest possible extent during his school career.

In this connection it should also be suggested that teachers must never be allowed to remain in charge of the same class and the same subject for a considerable period of time. If their knowledge of subject-matter has to be kept fresh and complete they must be provided with opportunities for teaching the whole range of a particular subject, which means that they should teach the same group of boys for at least two consecutive years. This system would also enable responsibility for the pupil's progress for two years to be laid on the same teacher.

There is one type of specialisation, however, with which all teachers as professional men are expected to be familiar and which must be mentioned at this stage. Teachers have so long been satisfied with teaching the prescribed course and conducting an annual promotion examination in the good old way. This cannot be considered satisfactory enough, for many children, especially the weak and bright groups of the class, have thus been left to their fate, if not positively neglected or sacrificed to the needs of the 'average' majority. If full justice is to be meted out to all scholars it is necessary that all teachers should know how to record the progress of the individual children, to note strong and weak points of each, to understand their likes and dislikes, and thus have ample material on which to base their methods of teaching and training. How such records can be maintained will be discussed in a subsequent

chapter, but every teacher, however learned or specialised, must remember that real specialisation or professional ability does not lie in the amount of information or book knowledge possessed by him but rather in his attitude towards his pupils' progress day after day and year after year, in his ability to know the deficiencies and excellences in them so that the former may be made good and the latter stimulated; in short, in his ability to practise his profession as an efficient artist and craftsman.

School Hours.—The ten-to-six time-table which has been discussed earlier in this chapter requires that there should be intervals between periods of work, more or less long according to convenience and requirements. Starting of school work at about ten in the morning, although almost universal in the country, has been condemned by a considerable body of medical opinion on the ground that impaired digestion leading on to Dyspepsia is sure to be the result of children rushing to school after taking their full meal at about ten. This evil is greatly minimised if children take their food an hour or more earlier and if provision is made for giving them suitable refreshments at about 1-30 p.m. at school. But even then, the fact remains that the whole school day is too long.

There is a good deal to be said in favour of the school working in two shifts, say, for $3\frac{1}{2}$ hours in the morning and about 2 hours in the evening, thus

allowing sufficient scope for bath, meals and rest during the day,— a system which was the rule in ancient India. This system would be found very suitable for the plains of India, where the climatic conditions are not quite favourable for hard and continuous work during the mid-day hours. The cool hours of the morning are very suitable for intense mental application, especially after the night's rest, while the afternoons require that the limbs and bodies should be exercised through proper physical activity. In the hot months 6-30 to 10 a.m. and 5 to 7 p.m. and, in the cold months, 7-30 to 11 a.m. and 3-30 to 5-30 p.m. would be found quite suitable hours for school work and, if introduced in all schools on the plains, may yield better results. The innovation is at least worth trying in a scientific manner and its results recorded properly.

Home-work.—If school work is conducted in the right spirit and in a business-like manner there should ordinarily be no need for setting home task to be done in the same way as work is done in the class-room. The best work is always done at the place meant for such work and the school is the place where teaching and learning are meant to flourish side by side. But, in spite of the fact the teachers provide opportunities for independent work to the scholars in his presence, there is enough justification for encouraging, and testing, self-effort on the part of the pupils by providing suitable home lessons as valuable complements to school work.

Apart from the value of such lessons in developing self-reliance, resourcefulness and independent effort they should be envisaged as excellent opportunities for creating and sustaining interests somewhat outside the scope of the prescribed curriculum. Home-work will lose most of its charms if it is prescribed in the form of school work; it will be a great educational gain if individual interests and aptitudes are stimulated and developed through properly organised schemes. If headmasters and teachers know and appreciate the value of hobbies as a valuable instrument of education they would refrain from spoiling the private hours of their pupils with work which should be done in the class-room and suggest work which will train them in the proper use of leisure in an interesting and useful manner.

"The kind of work that might well be done is reading, memorising passages from English literatures, drawing, handicraft work—well, one might almost say, any subject that excites interest in the *individual*. Preparation of a scene or play for a coming school or class-room performance will sometime move a whole class to voluntary home activity." (Bray)

One might add, all those activities which serve to familiarise the scholars with the actual applications of the school subjects in practical life, those which are known as 'Projects' in American educational literature, and which tend to develop useful hobbies in children.

As Wren so aptly puts it,

"Hobbies can do nothing but good, and the Indian boy rarely has one or any conception of what a hobby is. If anything in the nature of one can be suggested, interest in it aroused, and its pursuit guided, the best 'home-work' conceivable is in progress. The vast majority of Indian schoolboys are far too poor to adopt such hobbies as photography, or even the collection of foreign stamps and picture postcards, but there are plenty of hobbies which cost their patrons little or nothing at all in money, though much in well-spent time, care, thought and love. Nature study, botany, geology, entomology and so forth need no prohibitive amount of capital, nor do many such manual occupations as carving, modelling, wood-work, painting and drawing. Few teachers, however, have the interest, ability, personality and versatility to organise and encourage hobby as home-work, but, given a fairly good library, any teacher should be able to get valuable voluntary home-work, which, if not of immediate examinability, must widen the boy's outlook, deepen his interest, heighten his ideals and lengthen his hours of really intellectual life."*

Whatever be the form of home-work thus set headmasters should take care to see that no teacher improperly encroaches upon the requirements of another. Perhaps a Home-work time-table indicating

* *Indian School Organisation*, Ch. VI.

the time to be taken by each teacher would helpfully regulate the total amount of home-work to be done by the scholars each day and during a particular week.

Distribution of Non-Teaching Work.—Such important matters as disposal of leave and other applications, arrangement for the work of absentee teachers, issue and return of library books, maps and science apparatus, and care and management of stock and stores of the school, together with the supervision of games, matches, supply of refreshments and drinking water can never be controlled or managed by the headmaster himself. Hence in almost all schools a first assistant has to be chosen from among the teachers and made responsible for certain types of routine work which can be carried on according to certain prescribed rules and in a more or less mechanical manner. The first assistant can receive and dispose of leave applications of scholars up to a certain fixed period, cases requiring orders being submitted to the headmaster; he can distribute the work of teachers who are absent among the existing members of the school staff and act as a supervisor of school work in various ways. If, however, he begins to pose as a superior or dominate over his colleagues, the result will be very unfortunate. In such cases, the headmaster must entrust the work to a more tactful and capable assistant.

Selection of a librarian is a very important matter, for his work is not merely to see that books

are issued and returned according to rules but also to take positive steps to make the library attractive and useful to scholars. He has to keep in touch with the latest catalogues and reviews of books, advise the headmaster on the purchase of books and periodicals and in various ways let the children feel interested in the use of the library. It must be noted here that one central library in a school is not sufficient or satisfactory, the system of having small libraries for each class is more suitable for stimulating reading interests in children. For the latter purpose class masters can do the work of a librarian with great effect, the 'librarian' of the school being responsible for the central stock of books and periodicals and their proper upkeep in an up-to-date and intelligent manner.

Games material is liable to be handled roughly and carelessly by the boys unless proper arrangements are made for issuing them and getting them back every afternoon. Not only the Games Superintendent but every teacher, who is placed on 'games' duty, should be made responsible for this work and breakages, if any, should be noted daily. The games bearer will take out and put back articles but boys should use and return them in presence of teachers.

Science and Nature Study apparatus; maps, globes and other Geographical material; Manual Training tools and articles; drawing material; in fact, the stock belonging to various 'departments' will

naturally be in charge of the respective teachers, who must take care to maintain proper stock registers. They should be expected to keep their stock sufficient and up-to-date and, while in a position to supply illustrative material for *all* classes, not accumulate surplus or unnecessary stock. Headmasters should satisfy themselves that this point is observed in all the school 'departments.'

Proper distribution of different activities is a matter requiring great care and tact on the part of headmasters. Scouting needs trained and enthusiastic scoutmasters and teachers have to be found who will manage the training of small children as cubs and young boys as scouts. New teachers have to be encouraged to do this work not as a task but for the love of it, but headmasters, unless they have love, knowledge and enthusiasm for this activity, can soon reduce it to a dead and dull formality. The same remarks are true for First Aid, Junior Red Cross activities, anti-malarial work, social service, literary clubs and so on ; headmasters' ideas are reflected in the manner in which such activities are conducted in schools. It is for him to find out teachers who will do the work properly and then to see that the real spirit pervades all those activities which find a place in schools for the training of the pupils.

The list of activities and different forms of school work to be distributed among the staff can never be exhausted, but the headmaster will find the following

as sound and essential principles to be followed in this connection:—

1. Entrusting the work to the right person and making him fully familiar with the requirements ;

2. Giving time and scope for the carrying out of those requirements but personally seeing that boys are observing the right attitude towards them ;

3. Checking the results at the end of the year and giving *all* results proportionate values for the purpose of class promotion.

CHAPTER V

THE CURRICULUM AND TEACHING

School and Curriculum.—Indian educational institutions, both schools and colleges, have been accustomed to prescribed courses of study to such an extent that teachers as well as taught seldom feel the inclination or necessity to scrutinise, criticise or modify the curriculum to suit the needs of changing times. In fact, it would not be wrong to say that a blind and unintelligent adherence to prescribed curricula is the most prominent characteristic of the present educational system of India. Schools and colleges have lost their vital functions to such an extent that they cannot think or act otherwise than in terms of subjects and methods whose efficacy has long ceased to have tangible connections with the actual life of the country; traditional practice and refusal to change, adapt or even exert themselves to face or fulfil new requirements characterise the outlook and activities of the whole teaching profession.

But, if the nature of 'Secondary Education' enunciated in Chapter I is accepted, it is inevitable that schools must revise their whole attitude towards the prescribed curriculum. It is no use fretting or finding fault with the new reforms, which are

being introduced in the curricula of our schools slowly but steadily, although the solitary criticism which can be levelled with justification against the reformers is that they do not quite understand their business and hence seem incapable of reforming the curriculum completely. The view that should be taken by all headmasters and teachers is that, whatever the nature of the changes introduced in the prescribed courses of study, text-books and examinations from time to time, the actual work, *i.e.*, teaching and training, which has to go on inside the school, cannot afford to lose its unitary or unified character. The faith which should guide all school work should have as its central feature the conception that the life requirements of the growing children are much more varied, complex and comprehensive than can be supplied or fulfilled by paper curricula and that these requirements can be properly met by the children themselves in an atmosphere determined only in general outline by any prescribed curriculum. The real thing is the way in which pupils are trained; the medium of training, which the curriculum really is, acts best if left to exert its influence in broad outline only.

Our schools are still suffering from the effects of a medieval policy under which the requirements of college and university studies were made the basis of all school work. The highly theoretical nature of the so-called 'standard' studies or the 'three R's' cannot be easily reconciled to the practical needs of the school

population; university men, who dominate school Boards and Committees, cannot but think and act in terms of the 'future' requirements of university studies. The lower stages of education have to accept work prepared for them by teachers in the higher grades, and this system had been in vogue for such a long time that our schools have become conservative and rigid almost beyond redemption.

The Changing Curriculum.—It is outside the scope of this book to trace the history of evolution of the curriculum, although that history is romantic and useful enough for all teachers. But there are certain important tendencies which are characteristic of modern progressive schools and which must be noticed for the purpose of reconstruction of the curriculum. It is a sad commentary on our present educational system that it still desperately clings to old aims and methods, while the social, economic and political life of the country is advancing by leaps and bounds, with the result that the longer educational reform is delayed the wider will be the chasm which our schools and colleges will have to negotiate before falling into a line with the life of the country. That this criticism is true is amply proved by the efforts made since the days of the Sadler Commission (1919) to reform secondary education in this country—efforts, which have constantly failed to grasp the needs of the changing times and build a satisfactory curriculum out of those needs.

The present 'standard' or 'traditional' curriculum, having been built out of the past by students of academic outlook and temper, has got itself organised into a body of narrowly divided 'subjects,' which care very little for the growth and development of the scholars or for the needs of their life, immediate or future. With this narrow and patch-work nature of the curriculum it is very difficult for teachers to recognise and realise the two-fold nature of school work, *viz.*, to enable children to grow up as tolerant and understanding human beings living in the midst of other human beings like themselves, and to secure the fullest possible development of the powers and potentialities of individual pupils.

"Educators confront an enormously difficult task in the education of a child, a complicated organism growing up in a social world of essentially self-centred people, building meanings into his experiences in the midst of a group of mental and emotional worlds in which common meanings are almost entirely lacking. This child, defending himself from infancy against the physical world, against social pressure, against all the necessities of conformity, is given to a school for a few hours a day, and the task is placed upon the curriculum-maker of building a curriculum, an environment of activities—reading material, discussions, inter-play of mind and mind—which will steadily, from the first year of the Primary schools to the top year of the High schools

take that child in increasing maturity to tolerant understanding of the world about him

" the curriculum-maker must find by experiment ways of organising the curriculum in a problem-solving form, so that modes of living will be studied in the form of alternatives and options, thus giving the child a training in choice as well as in decision. This organising of the curriculum means another abrupt departure from conventional practice. Educators cannot hope to introduce youth to an understanding of modes of living if they persist in their century-long habit of putting both the personality of the child and of the civilization in which he is living into narrow academic compartments, isolated each from the other." *

Reforms in the school curriculum in the West have generally followed two main lines, *viz.*—(1) that part of it which is concerned with knowledge and skill; and (2) that part, comparatively new to this country but extremely important as shown by modern psychology, which deals with 'creative self-expression' on the part of the child.

Knowledge and Skill.—Whenever we think of the purpose which dominates the practice of education in our schools and colleges we cannot but feel that it is extremely narrow, meagre and often thoughtless, with hardly anything sensible or tangible to do with the

* Harrold E. Rugg, in "Towards a New Education," Ch. VI, pp. 199-200.

vital necessities of the scholars' lives. Even the imparting of knowledge, of which so much has always been made, is hardly anything more than the imparting of scrappy bits of information, which are mostly forgotten as soon as the examination is over and which are never woven or built up into a unified body of permanent knowledge. In fact, hardly any emphasis is laid on the methods by which knowledge is properly acquired by the pupils, with the result that the natural abilities of the growing human beings are left to work by themselves. What a poor attitude shown by the teachers towards their profession and towards the children placed under them!

If, however, teachers can be made responsible for this poverty of outlook with a consequent poverty of education in their pupils, the blame has to be equally shared by the curriculum-makers, who are completely swayed by examination considerations and nothing else. Teachers do what they are required or expected to do and they would continue to fail to do those things which are only vaguely expected of them. Memorised knowledge, being more tangible and more easily examinable than other educational results, has steadily come to occupy the most important place in our educational scheme; but the processes by which new knowledge is acquired,—all those 'skills' or 'abilities,' which are at once the basis and product of education,—are seldom handled consciously, deliberately and systematically by educators. They would

certainly receive more attention and careful treatment if less emphasis were laid on knowledge which had already been acquired and hence served its purpose and more importance attached to the children's ability to acquire new knowledge, to tackle new problems and to face new situations. It is this ability that should be the principal purpose of teachers to train and develop and of examinations to test in a sensible, systematic and scientific manner.

It is most unfortunate that the word 'skill' is misunderstood in much the same way as the word 'knowledge,' for it is generally believed that subjects like the three R's and History and Geography impart 'knowledge,' whereas Drawing, Manual Training and other practical arts impart 'skill' to the pupils. A little thought would show that the theoretical or informational subjects, too, have a good deal of skill to impart,—the skill to write and speak in the most appropriate language, to think and analyse correctly, to command the intellectual processes in different situations, while the so-called 'practical' subjects have a considerable body of knowledge or information to impart to the pupils. In fact the two terms 'knowledge' and 'skill' can hardly be separated from each other during the process of education and the curriculum-makers would do well to tell teachers that the latter are expected to use the prescribed or suggested courses of study as the means for developing skill, using the word in a manual as well

as intellectual sense rather than being satisfied with testing the retention of a body of disjointed and memorised knowledge by the children.

Professor Nunn on the Curriculum.—The following extract from Nunn puts in a nutshell the basic conception of a school curriculum :—

“The school must be thought of primarily not as a place where certain knowledge is learnt, but as a place where the young are disciplined in certain forms of activity—namely, those that are of greatest and most permanent significance in the wider world. Those activities fall naturally into two groups. In the first, we place the activities that safeguard the conditions and maintain the standard of individual and social life: such as the care of health and bodily grace, manner, social organisation, morals, religion; in the second, the typical creative activities that constitute, so to speak, the solid tissue of civilisation. The latter can be easily identified. What a loss civilisation would suffer if all that the words “art” and “science” stand for were obliterated! What a poor thing it would be if the poet ceased to dream and sing, if there were none to “handle” the harp and pipe, if the hand of the craftsman forgot its cunning!

“In the school curriculum all those activities should be represented. For these are the grand expressions of the human spirit, and theirs are the forms in which the creative energies of every generation must be disciplined if the movement of civilisation

is to be worthily maintained. Taking the second group first, every complete scheme of education must comprise (i) literature, including at least the best literature of the mother-land; (ii) some forms of art, including music, the most universal of all arts; (iii) handicraft, taught with emphasis either on its aesthetic aspect, as in weaving, carving, lettering, or on its constructional aspect, as in carpentry and needlework; (iv) science, including mathematics, the science of number, space and time. History and geography should appear in it in a double guise. On the one hand, history belongs with literature as geography belongs with science. On the other hand, they should have a central position in the curriculum as the subjects in which the human movement is, as such, presented and interpreted: history teaching the solidarity of the present with the past, geography the dependence of man's life upon his natural environment, and the interdependence of human activities all over the globe.

"The activities of the first group cannot, from their very nature, be treated as "subjects," though they should be inspired and nourished by the pupils' studies and must to a varying extent be guided by definite teaching. Physical health and bodily grace, for instance, cannot be taught as French is taught, though, as regards health, the pupil should gain hygienic ideals and knowledge in his science lessons, and, as regards bodily grace, there may be lessons in

"eurhythemics" in addition to the training of voice, gesture and carriage which will be gained in the dramatic and oratorical exercises that will form part of his literary studies. Similarly, the pupil will learn the ideals of government and social organisation in the exercise of his duties as a citizen of the school society, though his lessons in history ("Civics") should here have much direct and indirect influence. . .

"The subjects of the curriculum are, as we have said, to be taught as *activities*. This means, for example, that in teaching science our aim should be "to make our pupils feel, so far as they may, what it is to be, so to speak, inside the skin of the man of science, looking out through his eyes as well as using his tools, experiencing not only something of his labours but also something of his sense of joyous intellectual adventure." In short, all subjects should be taught in the 'Play Way,' care being taken that the 'Way' leads continuously from the irresponsible frolics of childhood to the disciplined labours of manhood. In this process there will naturally be, in all the subjects, stages showing a community of character, and analogous to stages in their historic development. The first is a stage whose characters are summed up in the 'pleasure-pain principle.' This is represented by 'nature study,' and by the love of myth, legend and marvellous travellers' stories, the common matrix out of which the pursuit of literature, history and geography are to grow. Gradually, the

'reality principle' asserts its sway. History becomes separated from story as the tale of what has really happened, and story itself must have verisimilitude; interest in science becomes a passion to understand how machines work, how things are made, how the life of plants and animals is sustained. In adolescence the synthetic activity involved in the pupil's intellectual adventures often becomes their most marked feature. His imagination is captured by the majestic generalisations of science, he seeks a synoptic view of history, and takes pleasure in the logical completeness of a geometrical system"*

Not only the fundamental bases of the curriculum but also the principles of teaching methods are clearly indicated in the above extract, and the educator, whether he be the administrator, the curriculum-maker, or the teacher, should do well to remember that the printed curriculum is only a suggested outline, which individual schools have to modify, fill up and even supplant according to the needs of the pupils and the principles of education. And, above all, teachers have to attend to individual pupils rather than the groups, known as "classes," as a whole, for it has been shown again and again that mass instruction, conducted in the conventional manner, has generally resulted in what may be called "perpetuation of mediocrity" in the school and college population of the land.

* *Education, Its Data and First Principles*, Ch. XV.

Teaching Methods.—Although it is not strictly within the purview of school organisation, a word of warning to teachers seems necessary at this stage on their method of teaching. Prof. Cyril Burt of London, while conducting an investigation on the effects of mass instruction on the intelligence and attainment of pupils, got results which point to very important conclusions. He calculated, for the purpose of comparison, the "Mental Ratio" and the "Educational Ratio" of different groups of children, and found—

(1) that children who are most retarded mentally appear still more retarded educationally (M. R. 79·6; E. R. 78·9).

(2) that there is discernible an effort, by no means sterile, to coax and coach the milder dullards to a grade more closely fitted to their actual age (M. R. 93·7; E. R. 95·8).

(3) that children, who are slightly above the average, despite superior talent, are largely kept back scholastically (M. R. 106·9; E. R. 102·2).

(4) that the ablest children are deprived of more than half their advancement and over ten per cent of their mental age (M. R. 123·1; E. R., 111·2).

"Thus there is a strong disposition to level a child's school work up or down towards the common standard for his age."*

* BURT: *Mental and Scholastic tests*, pp. 175-76.

This perpetuation of mediocrity and retardation of the 'genius of the race' can never be ignored by any sensible or honest person, however much he may follow "convenient" methods of teaching in the class-room. In fact, it is the schoolmaster, actually at work in the midst of his pupils who was compelled by his conscience to break through the thralldom of "Method" as evolved by Herbart half a century ago and adapt his procedure to suit the vital needs of childhood and adolescence by means of such well-known educational devices as the Dalton Plan, the Project Method, the Winnetka technique and so on. Freedom from too much domination and intelligent cooperation between teacher and taught in achieving the highest aims of education are the basis of these and all other similar so-called "modern" developments and every teacher would do well to study the child's ways and let him have full scope for growth and development.

"Education goes beyond the acquisition of knowledge and means a training in right habits and right thoughts, and these, in their turn, should blossom into right conduct and good character. . . . Teaching is a cooperative effort in which both partners work alike,—those who learn and those who teach. The cooperation which we have sketched entails a training in certain good habits and the cultivation of certain good qualities. It can be accomplished only by steady fostering of honesty, punctuality and perseverance; it should stimulate and satisfy a spirit of enquiry, and it

calls for self-reliance and a willingness to face difficulties including necessary drudgery. It should cultivate a promptness of response on all occasions, a habit of self-control, of which the fruits are accuracy and exactitude, tidiness and carefulness, all manifested in a measure appropriate to the child's age

"Finally, beyond the qualities so far sketched there lie even loftier constituents of good character; reverence, a perception of beauty and of goodness, with a sense of ultimate realities culminating in religion. These lie outside the art of teaching considered as craftsmanship. But they do not lie outside the teacher's duty." *

Creative Self-Expression.—Now we come to a subject which is the dominating feature of the most modern conception of education but which is totally lacking in our school system. Savants and teachers in advanced countries are telling us that the old rigid curriculum is the result of adult experience and that most valuable educational results are achieved if the courses of study and the methods of instruction are allowed to be evolved on the basis of children's spontaneous activities. The word 'spontaneous' should not be taken to mean 'unrestrained' or 'unguided' but rather understood as 'unrepressed'; our educators have yet to realise that, by sticking to the traditional

* WARD AND ROSCOE: *The Approach to Teaching*, Ch. XIV.

system of imposing adult methods and adult experience on the children, they have always deprived themselves of wonderful and valuable knowledge which freely active children impart to the rest of the world. "The artist in the child" has incessantly been crippled and destroyed by adult arrogance; the child as a 'creator' is almost unknown to our parents and teachers.

But those who have tried to translate their methods and subject-matter in terms of child life have found that the process of education undergoes a remarkable transformation, stirring up the living interests of scholars and pointing to procedures and results hitherto unknown to the conservative teacher. With great faith in nature's own ways and in the human powers, the new educator has set the child free from adult restraint and impatient interference in an atmosphere of joyous self-activity and has been gratified to find the child developing into a wonderful creator and artist, with powers seldom allowed to express themselves in any form in our schools.

We have already seen that knowledge and skill have so long occupied the largest amount of attention in our schools, the learning process being that of acquiring facts and of generalising them and indirectly of developing certain skills as a side issue. The emotional and artistic sides of child nature have not failed to engage the teachers' attention but the method of teaching has been mere imitation with little of

original creation. The individuality of the child has seldom been allowed to express itself in its own way; the cramped and unsatisfied imitator, which the teacher of art in our schools usually is, lacks the vision, the patience or the inspiration which only can enable the artist to keep up the divine urge in himself and in his pupils.

Our schools have yet to realise that rhythmic education aims at awakening and promoting many creative forces which at present are allowed to pine and fade in childhood; that the rhythm of the body and its movements can be expressed adequately only after careful training; that the elements of music as naturally indicated by movement, song and improvisation in normal children can easily be stimulated and directed with highly educative and valuable results; that proper *art education* awakens the creative ability of the child and later on guides the directive activities of the youth "by opening up a new way of looking at the world, by giving a view, on the one hand, of an ultimate harmony in life, and on the other, of humanity, seeking to fit the fragments of its experiences and activities into this ultimate harmony—not by escaping from the world by way of romance, but by recreating it;" that *literature* and *drama* do possess valuable, though intangible, connection with the emotional life of children, whose intuition and simple yet graceful rendering and imitation wonderfully harmonise with the spirit of the plays. If teachers want to do something

to avoid the emotional starvation of our children they must read accounts of experiments conducted in the West in the teaching of the various arts to small children and see how one vital phase of child nature has been totally neglected for generations in our schools with consequent evil effects on our whole national welfare and efficiency. The technique of imparting art education and developing the creative abilities of children by providing full scope for their self-expression in as many different ways as possible has to be learnt by every teacher, for, whatever the subjects he is required to teach, he will always find that, with greater freedom allowed to the pupils for self-expression in a large variety of ways (and not merely through speaking and writing in a slipshod manner as at present), they show marvellous improvement in all directions and develop into cheerful, confident and lovely human beings, who show characteristics quite different from those shown by the nervous, unbalanced, restless and incomplete products of our present educational system.

CHAPTER VI

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND WELFARE

A Wrong Idea.—It is wrong to suppose that schools have very little to do with the physical welfare of children and those teachers and parents who think that schools should simply concentrate on getting boys and girls pass examinations are ignorant of the real functions of schools. Mind and body grow together ; each depends on its health and welfare on the other. This simple fact should lead teachers to look to the health and welfare of both body and mind of the scholars and, since the school years are generally those when growth is the *central fact* of their life, teachers must attend to the proper development of the body to a greater extent than to that of the brain, and to training children in self-control rather than in unlicensed freedom. A proper synthesis between the old and the new theories of education is wanted in the best interests of the scholars. "The body, viewed apart, is not evil, but good ; the appetites are there, given, as we say, some to be fulfilled here and now, all to be controlled and cultivated in the interests of the higher nature. The old heresy treated the children as having only one organ, the brain ; the new heresy threatens the organism at the centre

for it exalts instincts and appetites as imperious powers which have us at their mercy."*

The necessity for providing a systematic and well-organised course of training of a physical nature at school similar to intellectual has to be recognised by all teachers, who, whatever the subjects they are required to teach, can never afford to ignore the physical and hygienic side of their pupils as long as they are in contact with one another.

Aims of Physical Education.—"The purpose and object of physical education is not merely to improve the physical condition of the children and to secure the full development of their health and strength, but also to aid in the development of their mental powers and in the formation of character. Physical education, therefore, has a physical effect on the body and an educational effect on the mind. The physical result includes the influence on the general physique and nutrition of the body, the prevention or correction of faulty action or attitude of the body or any part of it, and the development of the nervo-muscular system. The educational result should be the acquisition of habits of discipline, obedience, ready response and self-control."† The nature and importance of these aims can hardly be over-emphasised but it is doubtful if Indian schools even today realise them or are competent or desirous to adopt them in

* FINDLAY: *The Foundations of Education*, Vol. 1, p. 48.

† The Education of the Adolescent (*The Hadow Report*).

preference to the dull and dreary traditional practices. Unless the teacher has a thorough and practical knowledge of the values and aims of every activity or exercise he wants to teach and knows the effects and results of these on the children he cannot possibly have faith in them and it is a sad fact that very few teachers had received enough physical training on scientific lines in their early years to create the proper outlook in them. Yet, the thing has to be done and is being done to some extent although in an atmosphere of confusion created by the claims and clamours of foreign and indigenous systems of physical training.

It is a matter of common experience that the physical health and efficiency of the child are the basis on which his mental life and efficiency depend. An ailing, sick or unhealthy child is very greatly handicapped in all his thoughts and mental activities and the continued existence of such a condition directly and indirectly affects his all-round development in an adverse manner. It is for this reason that the object of physical education has been authoritatively stated in the following words:—

“The purpose of physical education in schools is not only to improve the physical condition of the pupils and to secure the full development of their health and strength but also to aid in the development of their mental powers and in the formation of character. The physical effect includes the influence

on the general physique and the nutrition, on the prevention or correction of faulty action and attitude of the body, and on the development of the neuromuscular system. The mental and moral effects include the acquirement of habits of obedience, ready response and self-control. These results are not only of immense value to the individual but, since the effectiveness of what is done often depends on the cooperation of a number of individuals, physical education plays an important part in fostering a healthy public spirit.”*

In short the aims of physical training in schools can be summed up thus :—

- (1) To foster growth and development of the whole body ;
- (2) To help and promote the vital functions ;
- (3) To develop strength, stamina and skill ;
- (4) To train movements and postures so as to produce balance, poise and grace ;
- (5) To create a ‘health conscience,’ love for a healthy body, a sense of neatness and decency and the powers of self-control.

Principles of Method.—While the details of games and exercises to be introduced in different classes are outside the scope of this book it would be undesirable to leave out their basic principles,—the

* Memorandum on Physical Education—*Physical Training Series* No. 11, H. M. Stationery Office, London, p. 2.

considerations on which the methods of the instructor should be based. All activities must be considered from the *individual* as well as from the *collective* point of view and proper balance must be maintained between *free* and *guided* (or controlled) activities. In other words, there must be regular provision made for play and for exercises, both graded and organised, so as to meet the requirements of children at various stages of development.

The facilities provided must include training both in the theory and practice of Physical Education and in Hygiene. The relation between Physical Education and Health Education is not always respected in our schools with the result that scholars seldom show the right attitude towards the different forms of training. The health lessons given in the 'Hygiene' periods, the various exercises provided in 'Drill' or 'Physical Training' periods and the games played in the evening do not seem to be properly co-ordinated, while such important activities as scouting and excursions are considered not as essential aspects of physical or health education but as separate activities or 'fads' thrust upon teachers and scholars with hardly any connection with the real work of schools.

If time and energy are to be spent on the physical education of scholars it is essential that satisfactory arrangements should be made for recording their progress. There are rules for periodically taking such

measurements as those of chest, height, neck, weight etc., but teachers seldom do this job in the right spirit. The school health officer is supposed to be unjustly encroaching upon the privileges of academic work and teachers do not as a rule like to maintain the records of physical measurements, ailments or positive physical deficiencies and remedies taken against them in an accurate and satisfactory form. It is, however, necessary for them to do so if physical education and hygiene teaching are to produce tangible and useful results. It is the headmaster's duty to get the physical records maintained with the same accuracy and care as the mark register or scholars' registers. Considering the age and stages of development of the school population the physical records cannot but be considered as far more important than any other record of progress.

The most fundamental idea underlying all health education and physical training is that of *prevention* rather than *cure*. Through such training children should learn how to avoid getting ailments rather than try to cure them after getting them. Physical stamina and immunity in general; hygienic habits particularly in regard to food, clothing, work, rest and general cleanliness; exercise of intelligent self-control; avoidance of unnecessary risks and adoption of precautionary and preventive measures at times of epidemics,—these are among the results which must be derived from a course of instruction, and, if practical

ability has not been acquired by the scholars from such instruction, the teachers can justly be taken to task for having failed in their duty in this respect. Physical welfare in the true sense of the term should be the basic principle of method in connection with the teaching of this subject.

Physical Training and Hygiene.—The technically-minded instructor of physical training has been generally found to avoid attaching proper importance to hygiene, but the fact is that the two are simply different aspects of the same subject and very closely related. The relevant facts in this connection cannot be presented better than by means of the following extract from an authoritative book:—

“In what does hygiene consist? The pathway to personal health is, first, a sound body at birth and its careful nurture throughout life—a matter of nature and heredity guided by nurture and education. The second requirement is the avoidance of the causes of impairment and disease—the daily conflict between man’s body and its total environment, and the avoidance or control of hurtful agencies in such environment Thirdly, there is the necessary and prompt relief or amelioration of the ‘reactions’ of the body to such agencies; in other words, the early and effective treatment of deficiencies and diseases in the body as they occur. It is at the beginning of disease, in childhood, that control and cure are most practicable It is obvious that guidance and direction are needed by

the un-initiated child if it is to find and follow this pathway. He cannot find it by chance nor can he follow it by guessing. To provide the guidance and knowledge is the task of the school teacher, though much of it is hidden in the wisdom of the body itself. Hence it is nurture rather than instruction which is required

"There are three principal ways in which health may be both acquired and taught in youth, (*a*) by habit-training, (*b*) by learning the truths of biology, chemistry and physics, and (*c*) by understanding the principles and practice of good living itself. They are three aspects of our study, each appropriate to different age periods or degrees of experience. In a young child under 10 or 11 years of age, hygiene should be taught, as a rule, by habit training. Thus, in infancy, did we all learn. The little child will learn by doing and not by hearsay. But when the growing child has acquired the elements of science or housecraft, some degree of reasoned explanation and interpretation of hygiene becomes practicable. It may, indeed, be woven into several collateral subjects of the curriculum and the intellectual curiosity of the child enlarged and in some degree satisfied. All school teachers, whatever subject they may be teaching, should gain a liberal understanding of wholesome living and become both its practitioners and interpreters . . .

"Finally, the teacher should lose no opportunity of securing the child's active co-operation in all

matters of health at school . . . the teacher will embrace opportunities for health education in connection with the medical inspection of the child, the provision of lunch or the midday meal, the ordinary discipline and good ordering of the school, the training in domestic science, or the instruction in physical exercises and games. But the occasion is wider yet. For much may be done by the true teacher of hygiene in linking up the school with the house, in awakening the interest and responsibility of the parents, and in cultivating a larger health relation with the community as a whole. It is his privilege, in fact, to lay the foundations of a health-conscience in the minds of the people of the next generation”*

Team Games.—It is comparatively easy to draw up a graded scheme of formal physical movements and exercises or to follow the syllabus in hygiene prescribed on the curriculum. But it is a very difficult affair to have a satisfactory scheme of team games or activities in which groups of scholars take part with clear-cut and definite objects. Football, hockey and volleyball are quite common favourites, for their rules are prescribed, although the third has a great advantage over the first two inasmuch as it needs a much smaller space and provides good exercise. Cricket and tennis are less suitable on account of the expenses involved as far as school children are concerned.

* *Handbook of Suggestions on Health Education*, Board of Education, England: pp. 8-9 & 12.

But other games played by parties of six, eight or ten players on each side, have to be introduced if the 'team' spirit is to be inculcated in the scholars, and, although there are numerous indigenous games played in different parts of the country, it is a pity that they have not yet been properly standardised. Unless the rules of a game are prescribed it tends to degenerate into a confusion and the players do not learn how to cooperate with one another in playing and winning it.

Schools must have a regular scheme of games suitable for each class and the teacher-in-charge should carefully instruct the players in the rules as well as the most effective methods of playing them. It is regrettable that few efforts are made to teach boys the actual rules and methods even of such common and popular games as football and hockey and it has been found again and again that teachers supervising afternoon games do not know, or care to learn, the latest rules and methods of playing them. Where printed copies of rules are easily available there is no justification for any teacher being ignorant of them. And, if this shortcoming is true for standard games, it can easily be imagined how faulty and fruitless would be the provision of other and new games, with which people are less familiar. The fact is that the schools have to revise their whole attitude towards games and physical training and attend to them exactly in the same manner as to the teaching of English or Mathematics. Physical education (*i.e.*, a scheme of Drill,

Exercises, Games and Hygiene teaching) has its principles, methods and syllabuses as psychological, detailed and connected as any other subject of the school curriculum, and teachers cannot afford to remain ignorant of them without causing incalculable harm to the children.

It is essential that teachers placed in charge of team games should realise their two-fold aim, *viz.*, (a) helping the pupils to develop their bodies as a whole by giving them exercises which involve the entire body, as running, jumping, rapid turning, use of all limbs and so on; and (b) inculcation of the 'Team spirit,' *i.e.*, cooperation with one another and enabling the whole team to act most effectively in order to win the game. Both individual and group efficiency have to be achieved through regular effort, and the teacher must be a person of knowledge, imagination and sympathies before he can guide the team towards such efficiency.

Results of Physical Training.—If games, exercises and theoretical instruction have to be conducted systematically, the following, among others, should be the marked results of the training:—

1. *Correct habits* and outlook. Pupils should love cleanliness of clothes, skin, nails, hair and the body in general, and should possess the habit of taking exercise daily with a view to keeping themselves fit for the physical strain of daily life.

2. *Normal functions* of the vital organs, *e.g.*, digestion, sleep, excretion etc., and a general brightness of manners and healthy appearance and gait.

3. *Correct postures*, while sitting, standing or walking. At school this problem is twofold, for, not only have correct postures to be taught to new children but faulty postures already formed have to be corrected. The cramping life inside the class-room frequently results in the stiffening of the joints and loss of flexibility in muscles. Hence a greater need at school for the provision of daily periods of organised activity in order to maintain the natural mobility of childhood and counteract the undesirable effects of an enforced sedentary life during a period of rapid development.

The correct position of the head, shoulders and chest in all situations and a general briskness of movement are fairly reliable indications of good training.

4. *Real Sportsmanship*, a spirit of cooperation or correct 'team spirit' and a sound character.

5. *Absence of Indolence*. If correct training has been received by the pupils in the proper spirit, the result should certainly be a positive hatred for laziness or indolence and love for out-door life and activity and a general spirit of enthusiasm and vivaciousness characterising the life of the children. They will, in consequence, always exhibit a remarkable degree of physical health and efficiency which alone can make for satisfactory mental work and progress and without which they will be a drag and burden to society.

School Responsibility for Physical Welfare.—

Teachers and headmasters have to remember that physical education is a 'Practical' subject and children can be trained only through practice, which has to be comprehensive and well-graded so as to meet the requirements of all scholars. "In order to provide an adequate programme in health and physical education the following requirements should be met:—

A physical and medical examination system, paying the greatest attention to following up each case needing treatment.

A programme in hygienic, corrective and educational calisthenics to develop organic vigour, to correct posture and structural defects and to train in form, precision, alertness, control and coordination, this to be progressive and adapted to the various age groupings.

A programme in elementary and major games to strengthen the vital organs, develop motor efficiency, supply wholesome recreation and to develop those mental and moral qualities which can best or can only be developed through games and other activities.

A programme of athletics and self-testing activities including apparatus exercises, to develop motor skill and efficiency in handling the body.

A programme of intra-class and inter-class competition activities to provide wholesome competition and to develop good sportsmanship.

A programme in personal and group hygiene, physiology, first aid and sex education, arranged

progressively for all grades, with special emphasis on the problem of developing health habits. All the courses in the curriculum should be arranged so that they contribute to this work.”*

I must add that, unless headmasters take personal interest in the physical welfare of individual scholars, no syllabus or scheme of exercise will produce the desired result in this country for some time to come.

It is not difficult to prepare such comprehensive programmes for proper physical education or to compel teachers and pupils to follow them. But even then the results may not be satisfactory exactly in the sense in which the results of our academic type of education have not been satisfactory. Real knowledge and ability is what is wanted and not a blind adherence to mechanical or conventional methods. If practice of correct health habits is wanted, it must be based on a sound knowledge of what real health means. If physical exercises are to be done by children they must fully understand what will happen to their limbs, organs and functions as a result of each exercise and of all the exercises taken together. If they are required to play games they are certainly entitled to know the rules, methods and results of all those games; it is not enough to leave them alone with the games. If they have to take school refreshments they must be taught the food values of those refreshments and the methods

* A. J. DANIELSON : *Health and Physical Education for Schools in India* (Y. M. C. A. Publishing House, Calcutta), Ch. XII, p. 278.

of taking them properly. Practice of all kinds must be accompanied by adequate instruction so that an intelligent and critical knowledge may grow in the children along with the formation of correct habits. The schools, populated as they are by children coming from homes with widely differing standards of life, can easily become danger spots and the means of spreading dirt, disease and infection all over the locality. But, with correct education spreading a knowledge of health rules and through firmly established health habits in the children, they can easily become models of sanitation and the means of improving the health conditions of the country. Schools must act as if their primary aim was the education of the whole country in the physical welfare of its population through the formation of a correct 'health conscience' supported by the ability to practise the rules of health.

Without this basic training school children can never be expected to develop a strong and healthy mind, for no part of the human being can grow and function satisfactorily without a healthy functioning of the whole body.

CHAPTER VII

RECORDING PROGRESS; CLASS PROMOTION

Teaching and Testing.—In Ch. V an effort has been made to expose the fundamental difference which should clearly exist in the mind of the teacher between 'knowledge' and 'skill,' so that all his teaching efforts may be directed to the achievement of both these results of education in the scholars. The view of Professor Nunn on this important matter has also been extensively quoted in that chapter to clarify the meaning of the two terms 'knowledge' and 'skill' in connection with the various subjects of the school curriculum. No teacher will be worth his name if he does not clearly aim at developing both 'knowledge' and 'skill' in his pupils, whatever the subject or subjects taught by him, and since his day-to-day business in the classroom consists in teaching as well as testing, he has to test as satisfactorily as he can both these aspects of instruction. For he has to remember that, while knowledge is often forgotten, modified or amplified, the skills considered in the mechanical as well as intellectual sense, should be developed and established so firmly that they would always be at the service of the educand throughout his life.

Teaching and testing go together, and, through them, the teacher forms an opinion of his pupils' progress. Some confusion has, however, been recently caused by what is known as the widening of the curriculum, *i.e.*, the steady introduction of new subjects in the school curriculum. "As one subject after another has claimed a place in the curriculum, there has been little or no discrimination between the subjects as to the manner in which they should be treated. They have too much been taken as separate subjects, and the same standards of accuracy have been demanded in all. In several quarters . . . it has been urged that some subjects are to be completely mastered, while others do not need the application of rigid standards of achievement, but rather are to be enjoyed as expressing the personality of the pupils, giving opportunity for cooperative work not possible in the individual mastery subjects, and supplying incentives for the study of the latter . . .

" . . . teachers and employers might decide just what parts of the three R's and of knowledge subjects like history and geography are really essential to all normal children, and what standards could reasonably be exacted in these at each age. It would, I think, be found that these minimum essentials were a good deal less than is commonly realised. The kind of arithmetic sum, for example, which actually meets a boy or girl in the course of employment is not, as a rule, difficult, but requires absolute accuracy. That

accuracy, in those simple sums, employers are entitled to exact from the products of the schools, and similarly with spelling and reading It would not be necessary to keep every child at this work equally long. Some would finish and get away to their expression-work sooner than others. But all would have to master each step and achieve the standard accuracy and speed in the fundamental operations of the tool subjects. This done, let the rest of the day be spent on education rather than training. Both sides of school work are valuable

"It would have to be considered unprofessional in a teacher to give any drill work for accuracy in the fundamentals to children who already were up to the determined standards And there would have to be determined opposition to any attempt to make these standards anything more than really minimum essentials. So far, but so far only, the work of the school might be submitted to standardisation, drill methods, and the production of results; but only on condition that the rest of the school day, and the rest of the school work, was free from the requirements of individual results, and permitted to be enjoyable, buoyant, vital activity for the works' own sake alone."*

Thus, there are two clear sides to the process of teaching and, if teachers are required to attend to both and children made to learn both, it is inevitable that

* GODFREY H. THOMSON: *A Modern Philosophy of Education*, Ch. III.

their progress should be properly recorded in both. Our present system of tests and examinations has not kept pace with the expanding requirements of the curriculum, with the result that many of the new subjects and new activities do not receive the correct amount of respect and attention from the scholars, teachers and the public at large, especially because many of these "innovations" are not amenable to examination of the traditional type.

It is necessary, therefore, to enunciate a formula (it should become an accepted principle of all educational organisation and administration) (*a*) that there must be satisfactory arrangements for recording children's progress in *all* those subjects and activities on which they and their teachers are required to devote time and attention at school, and (*b*) that *all* such records must be considered while promoting scholars to the next higher class.

Examiner's Marks.—It has again and again been proved that no examiner, whatever his nature, ability or experience, ever can award the same marks to the same answer, examining it at different times, and that different examiners have never marked the same answer in the same way, their assessments always varying, often within very wide limits. Reference need be made only to such recent publications as "*Marks of Examiners*" by Hartog and Rhodes, or its summary, "*An Examination of Examinations*," for ample evidence in support of these statements. Not only individual

examiners but Boards of Examiners, too, acting under precise and detailed instructions, have invariably failed to award the same, or very nearly the same, marks for the same performance of candidates, and the disparity in marking has often varied within considerable limits. For example, in English (Essay and Précis) for the School Certificate Examination, the marks scored by three candidates were as follows:—

Range of Marks.

“Candidate X was awarded 28, 32, 46, 56, 56, 58 and 80 out of 100 by the seven examiners	... 52
Candidate Y was awarded 24, 42, 48, 60, 60, 64 and 70 out of 100 by the seven examiners	... 46
Candidate Z was awarded 16, 36, 38, 44, 44, 46 and 60 out of 100 by the seven examiners	... 44

(Out of a total of 48) nine candidates were awarded a Pass by all the examiners. Of the 39 candidates who were awarded a Failure mark by one or more examiners, 25 were awarded a Credit, 8 Spécial Credit, and 3 Distinction by one or more examiners. Again, two of the examiners awarded between them Distinction to six candidates. The awards of the other examiners to these six candidates were as follows:—

<i>No. of Candidate</i>	<i>Awards of the other Examiners</i>
1	Failure; Pass; Credit; 3 Spécial Credits.

2	Failure; 4 Credits; Distinction.
3	2 Failures; 4 Credits.
4	2 Passes; 4 Credits.
5	Pass; 3 Credits; 2 Special Credits.
6	4 Credits; 2 Special Credits."

(*An Examination of Examinations*, para 26)

The same story has been found in the marks awarded in all other subjects and one cannot but come to the conclusion that a great mistake has been committed by all concerned by attaching absolute values to the marks of examiners both for the purpose of declaring passes and failures in examinations and for the purpose of further employment of the passes (and rejection of failures) on the basis of these numerical marks.

"Until quite recently nobody thought of examining the examiner; but he himself has now been weighed in the balance and found wanting. His claims to reliability, to say nothing of infallibility, can no longer be maintained. And, since marks that fluctuate with the caprice or the capacity of the examiner have no scientific validity, expedients have been found which take away his discretionary power and bind him down to a rigid scheme of scoring. To secure certitude in the marking and thus not only disarm all suspicion of personal bias but also remove

the sting of injustice from an adverse verdict, is well worth attempting, even at some sacrifice.”*

Whatever relation such findings may have with the reform of private or public examinations, teachers must carefully guard against causing harm or hardship to their pupils by means of examination marks, *i.e.*, by awarding passes and failures on the basis of such unreliable marks or their totals only. Since marks have been found to vary within wide limits, a margin of from 5 to 10 per cent, as a minimum, if not more, must be allowed in each subject, and, even then, justice can be done if the teachers' own opinion and the class records of the scholars are given due consideration before passing final judgment on their year's work. The numerical results of specially organised examinations cannot be reasonably made the basis of such judgment; at best they indicate the nature of the candidates' performance at the time of the examination only.

Present Examinations Criticised.—It has just been stated why the marks awarded by examiners are an unreliable index of a candidate's performance. There are other reasons which make our present examinations, both inside and outside the school, open to serious objections. Some of them are discussed below.

(a) The comparatively small number of questions asked in all examinations introduces an element of

* P. B. BALLARD: *The New Examiner* : Ch. I, page 23.

chance and uncertainty and, not being representative of the whole field of study, fails to give a clear direction to the candidate's preparation. Even the argument that the questions test important aspects of the subjects is hardly tenable, because different examiners have different ideas of the relative importance of topics which form the content of each subject.

(b) The questions set do not clearly require definite or unambiguous answers, being generally complicated by a variety of requirements and often involving a mixture of reasoning, reproduction and arrangement of facts or information. That this sort of mixed requirement is open to grave objection has again and again been proved by investigators and framers of standardised tests.

(c) Perhaps the worst, because the most uncertain, feature of the present system of written examinations is the 'essay' form in which candidates are required to answer questions in all subjects. "An essay is an intricate mental product which can be analysed in a variety of ways and yet can never be analysed completely Everybody knows and admits that an essay as an essay proves intractable stuff in the hands of an examiner; but few are ready to admit that every examination into which English composition enters is vitiated by the same taint as the essay itself. But it is. The man who marks an examination paper in Geography is willynilly marking English as well as Geography. He thinks he is estimating the-

candidate's knowledge of Geography, but all the while he is being unconsciously influenced by adventitious things—by the handwriting, the neatness, the spelling, the grammar, the comeliness of the wording—the thousand and one things that go to make up a series of written answers. It may perhaps be argued that this is right and fitting; that knowledge is so indissolubly wedded to words that you cannot test one without testing the other. The soundness of this plea may, with certain reservations, be admitted. It is not, however, the mere bringing of words into the business that is objected to: it is the writing out of the words in the form of an essay. This absorbs time and absorbs thought—a kind of thought that is totally distinct from the kind that is supposed to be tested . . . And valuable as is this process of reshaping our inner speech into the conventional forms of written language, it is not History, nor Geography, nor Science: it is essay-writing. And in examining we do not wish to count the same thing over and over again; especially if we cannot estimate it justly to begin with. If from the two or three hours usually allotted to a public examination we take away the time taken up in putting ideas into decent English, and in the mere mechanical task of writing it out, there is not much time left for the amount of thinking that is strictly to the point.”*

* P. B. BALLARD: *The New Examiner*, Ch. V.

(d) Examiners and examining bodies have seldom paused to realise the immense influence which their judgment has always exercised on the curriculum, on the teachers' methods and on the whole outlook of the employing agencies. Had they been conscious of their responsibility they would certainly have set up some instrument for making their methods really sound and reliable with the sole object of passing judgment on the candidates' performance, not in an absolute or sweeping manner but in a more sensible manner than at present. No one can satisfactorily say anything about the ability of candidates who have passed in the 3rd or the 2nd or even the 1st division and it is very much open to doubt if all those who fail in an examination are really 'failures' from the point of view of life or livelihood. The following extract puts in a decent and significant form the 'real' implications of the examiners' judgment:—

"I asked a friend of mine who is an experienced examiner, what it would be safe to assert of the powers of a student who could just succeed in obtaining pass marks at a pass examination in several subjects. His reply was "I think you could say that he could pass the examination at the time that he passed it." I went further "Would it be safe to say that he had any useful knowledge of the subjects of the examination—that he would be fit for any career?" The answer was clear: "No, you could say none of these things. When you

have said that he has passed the examination, you have said all that can be said." *

With such precarious and unsatisfactory interpretation of examination results, headmasters and teachers can never justify their present practice of blindly continuing to imitate and follow the ways of public examinations in connection with their internal school examinations. In so doing they have not only been leading the scholars and their guardians to believe in the faulty judgment of examinations but also losing faith in their own opinions of the children and in the school records, both of which are better instruments for measuring the pupils' progress than examination marks.

Methods of Recording Progress.—School work can be broadly divided into two classes, *viz.*, academic type of work and extra-academic activities, both of which are essential for a satisfactory training of the bodies and minds of the scholars. And, if such training is the aim of school education, it stands to reason that proper records should be maintained of progress of individual scholars in the several items of training and given due weight at the time of promoting them to the next higher class.

In physical training and games a correct statement should be prepared of the health records of scholars (their height, weight and chest measurements) and of

* P. J. HARTOG: *Examinations and Their Relation to Culture and Efficiency*, 1918, page, 27.

the number of exercises done by them under the physical training instructor and of the games played by them during the year. An account should also be maintained of their active and intelligent participation in such important educational activities as scouting, First Aid, Junior Red Cross work, antimalarial and other forms of social service, etc. And all such records must be considered as essential items for entitling scholars to class promotion and of equal importance with other items of a more or less bookish or academic nature.

In subjects which are predominantly practical, *e.g.*, Drawing, Manual Training, Hygiene, Nature Study and Science, a record must be maintained in each case of the number of practical exercises individually and intelligently done by each pupil during the year and this record must have the same value for the purpose of class promotion as a separate practical examination at the end of the year. Right up to the end of the Middle stage such records should be properly maintained so that one could be sure to find out from them whether the pupils have been participating in the practical training regularly and systematically from one end of the year to the other and not dodging the prescribed course of training with a view to taking their chance at the final examination. In this connection, the attention of teachers and headmasters must be drawn to the need of attaching very great importance to the written work of the pupils in all subjects—to the composition and translation pieces in Language, to the

written work in different branches of mathematics, to the maps and charts prepared in Geography and History and so on. The total amount of such work done by each pupil and the manner in which it is done are a very good index of the training received by them and hence should form the basis of the opinions to be formed of each pupil's work in the various subjects.

With the records of progress in 'Physical' types of work and in the 'Practical' subjects regularly maintained as suggested above, we are left with the purely 'academic' type of work, in which, if full justice is to be done to the modern conception of education and the labours of teachers, there must be carefully planned examinations, both written and oral. In fact, it has again and again been suggested by responsible authorities that school examinations can be restricted to mathematics and language only without any possibility of harm or injustice to either teacher or taught. The basic 'utilisable' skills or abilities are comprehension, analysis, expression and reproduction, and, if scholars up to a certain stage are thoroughly grounded and trained in these and periodically tested and found fit, they need not be worried with formal examinations in other subjects.

Importance of School Records.—The need of permanent records of each scholar has been emphasised by Burt in very clear terms as follows:—

"Last of all, let me urge, not only the need of periodic testing whether by the same teacher or by

successive teachers, but also the preservation of the records, and their transference from one teacher to another as the child is moved from class to class. Too often the personal knowledge gleaned by his first teacher, through individual attention, through daily study and a year's experience, is lost when the child is promoted to a new class or leaves for a new school; and the discoveries have to be made all over again. Rather the old records should become the basis of new observations; and, as the child develops, as he passes from standard to standard, from department to department, from school to school, and, finally from school to his ultimate vocation, his dossier should go with him, and form the basis of the advice and guidance offered him in selecting his appropriate employment." *

School records are valuable from the diagnostic point of view, too. If properly maintained, they should indicate the special likes and dislikes, tastes and aptitudes, weak and strong points, of the scholars, and proper use can be made of these findings in giving them help and guidance for their future training. The present system of declaring passes and failures on the basis of predominantly academic and written examinations does harm and injustice to a large body of young men and women, who, although they lack abilities in academic directions, may have special tastes which are of considerable value for the purpose of their

* *Mental and Scholastic Tests*, pp. 268-69.

life. Among the numerous 'failures' at our public examinations there may be potential artists and artisans, poets, musicians, painters, craftsmen, athletes, and acute business heads, whom the examiners have no business to declare as failures and who expect and deserve as much careful attention as the passes. If educational institutions have to do their whole duty towards the scholars then it is inevitable that all types of pupils must be discovered, trained and shown the proper way to success in life. And this can well be done through correct diagnosis of their natural gifts by means of collective school records maintained and intelligently interpreted for a number of years.

"The opinion seems accordingly to be growing that externally imposed examinations should be abolished and their place taken by a system of record-keeping and internal examination which would maintain standards and make for uniformity where such is desirable, while allowing to each school and teacher freedom for invention and experiment—a freedom which is essential if schools are to be living entities and education a cultural process. This system of record-keeping, based upon an extension and elaboration of that already in vogue, might finally cover the whole of a child's activities and interest, describing physical development and family history, enumerating special interests and hobbies, and making some evaluation of creative and social activities. It would also record the percentages obtained in "Intelligence,"

vocational and temperamental tests (and in all probability in certain achievement tests) as well as the results of internal examinations and the teachers' estimates of past work

"The record card here described would also present peculiar advantages. It would secure uniform standards of comparison in subjects in which uniformity is the aim without standardising either the general curriculum or particular methods. It would act as a check upon teachers without the disadvantages that result at present from the use of external examinations in place of the inspection of schools. It would allow for the recording and tentative assessment of those social and artistic activities, which are a vital element in the school life of all children, but which cannot be tested by ordinary examination. And finally it would present the schools and society with a reasonably accurate picture of the child as a whole and not of certain aspects only of his abilities and attainments.

"It is true that the preparation of such record cards demands from teachers much extra work and extra knowledge, and many further experiments need to be made in regard to their form and the best methods of utilising them. We may therefore legitimately look forward to the extension and elaboration of this method until it finally supplants the present out-of-date system of examinations." *

* The Examination Tangle and the Way Out—*Report of the International Commission of N. E. Fellowship*, 1935.

Principles of Class Promotion.—Now we are in a position to set forth the considerations which should guide the headmaster in promoting scholars from class to class. There are three main items in this connection, *viz.*, Age, Attainment and Ability, which have been very sensibly emphasised by Burt in the following words :—

“Even with average children, the amount and accuracy of their present knowledge forms but a rough, uncertain index of their power to acquire more knowledge. No matter how homogeneous a class may be at the beginning of a term, by the end of it a few will have forged far ahead of the majority and others lag behind. It is what a child *can* learn, not what he *has* learnt, that should count. The golden maxim should be this: promote by attainment rather than by age, and by ability rather than by attainment. In too many schools the order of precedence is inverted. First consideration is always to be accorded to the child's innate intelligence.

“Hence in all questions of school organisation, in all questions of class promotion, but above everything, where subnormal or supernormal pupils are concerned, the teacher, besides examining the pupils' acquired school knowledge, should also possess some means of gauging his inborn mental capacity.”*

Unfortunately there are no arrangements in our schools to record the mental capacity of the children,

* *Mental and Scholastic Tests*, p. 2.

no standardised tests which can enable teachers to note their Intelligence Quotient or find out their Mental Age. There are numerous teachers trained in foreign universities who can join hands in framing suitable tests for this purpose; perhaps it will be necessary for Government to take the initiative in this matter in a more vigorous manner than they have done so far.

The modifications of Binet Tests published some years back by the Government of India or those published by Dr. C. H. Rice from Lahore are hardly suitable for this vast country, particularly as they are 'individual' tests and time-consuming. Hence teachers will have to adopt some suitable methods of using reliable substitutes for Intelligence Tests until standardised ones are forthcoming.

One method which can be adopted is to change the form of the question papers set at examinations in such a manner that questions are asked in the form of those items which have a high degree of correlation with Intelligence. A look at Ballard's Tests in English, Arithmetic, History and Geography will show that use has been made of such forms as 'filling gaps,' 'best answer,' 'reasoning,' 'selection' and so on, and, at the same time, the whole field of study has been covered by means of a large number of questions. If this method is adopted the result will not only be a more comprehensive and more intelligent examination than we have in our schools and colleges at the present time but a greater economy of time and money, for the

whole examination will take less than half the time devoted at present to the purpose and the need of supplying separate answer-books will also disappear.

Thus we can test ability and attainment together in quite a sensible manner and, if these examinations are held at the end of the three terms, schools will have results on the basis of which promotion can be given to scholars in a more satisfactory manner than at the present time.

But this covers mostly the academical side of school work. The formula enunciated earlier in this chapter can, on no account, be modified, for schools have to provide for a harmonious development of all sides of the scholars and consequently they must attach due importance to their physical development on the one hand and social training on the other, in addition to their intellectual progress. It is here that school records come in for consideration. While the average majority present hardly any difficulty to the headmaster at the time of deciding class promotions, the two extreme groups—the bright and the weak—including some border-line cases have to be carefully considered before final judgments are pronounced on them. The chief methods here will be to find out whether they have been doing *their best* regularly and consistently throughout the year in connection with all school activities and studies. Effort, and not merely a single achievement, should be the main criterion for credit and sluggards should be properly penalised.

The main headings under which the final results of a year's schooling should be tabulated are (i) attendance (both in the classroom and on the playground); (ii) physical measurements; (iii) examination results (written, oral and practical); (iv) teachers' opinion; (v) records of written and practical work; (vi) conduct. All the items may or may not be converted into numerical figures but all these matters must be fully considered before promotion is allowed to the next higher grade. On no account can the headmaster allow a weak pupil to go in for higher or more strenuous work without danger of future harm and breakdown to him, just as he cannot reasonably detain a scholar who, in spite of his failure to pass an examination, has always done his best and shown that he is capable of faster progress with better opportunities.

In this connection headmasters have also to remember that they have to create a sense of correct educational responsibility in the minds of the public, too. They cannot allow over-age pupils to remain in any class, for such pupils always create important problems of discipline in the classroom and need special methods of teaching which the teacher cannot adopt in the interests of the rest of the class. 'Misfit' pupils must be eliminated; it is the business of the public to found specially suitable institutions for them.

The Problem of Failures.—This question of treatment of misfit pupils naturally raises a most important problem which, in the best interest of the country,

requires the most serious attention. Following the methods of outside or public examinations schools have always been declaring a number of children in each class as 'failures' every year and thus compelling them to spend at least one more year in the same class, and the system has grown so common that no one feels that there is anything wrong in it. The human side of the matter does not seem to have touched the hearts of headmasters and teachers who have gradually become slaves to a convenient tradition. And it is perhaps natural in a country in which the best practices of progressive schools of the world do not easily find sympathetic consideration or ready acceptance. Schools often forget that it is not their business to declare pupils as passes and failures but rather to train them in the best possible manner. There are always sure to be bright, average and weak pupils in every class, but not much good is done to the weak ones by detaining them for one year or more in any class in a mechanical way. The problem of weak children is one of individual diagnosis and treatment, and some of them, if trained properly, would surely prove worthy of the promotion much earlier than a whole year.

Intelligence tests come to have an important place in the diagnosis of weak pupils much more accurately than the examination marks or teachers' opinions. Dull, backward and retarded children, at the present time, are often classed together as failures, whereas the practice should be to eliminate those who are naturally

deficient in native intelligence and attend carefully to those who are retarded in their progress through illness, irregular attendance or bad teaching. Backward children are a separate problem by themselves and schools must note carefully the sentiments expressed by Burt in the following words:—

“It is essential that the backward child should be discovered and taken in hand at the earliest possible moment. The sooner he is detected and given the special attention that he needs, the sooner is the hope of removing or at least of compensating for his particular type of disability. One of the greatest obstacles to speeding up the progress of the older retarded child is the child's depressing sense of his own inferiority. Before the age of 11 he may hardly have realised his unfortunate position. But, with the growth of self-consciousness that the approach of puberty brings with it, he begins to contrast himself with his normal fellows, and to feel humiliated if he is taught along childish lines. Hence the later his backwardness is attacked, the smaller are the chances of success. To ignore the backward child until he has reached the age of 11 or more, and his backwardness has forced itself on everyone's notice, on the teacher, on the rest of the class, on the backward child himself, until, in fact, he becomes a conspicuous nuisance to all concerned, or, worst still, to wait until he is on the verge of exchanging school for industry, and then to try slapping a final polish on him—this is a common

but a blind and ineffectual policy ; it is like waiting until the consumptive breaks down at his post before giving a thought to his trouble and cure.*

A Notable Suggestion.—The following recommendations made by an International Committee of the New Education Fellowship are worth serious notice :—

“(1) The present emphasis in intellectual matters should be shifted from memory work to the cultivation of the power of judgment, which implies a proper imaginative grasp and understanding of the subject. For this purpose, extensive experiments should be made in the use of reference books, dictionaries, etc., during the examination.

(2) No examinations can measure creative powers, since only the technique of art can be examined. Works of artistic promise are the only test of artistic ability, and cannot be produced on demand. Artistic and practical activities, therefore, though a vital element in the school curriculum, must be assessed otherwise—by works produced rather than by examination. These works should be presented for assessment in connection with all examinations.

(3) Qualities of character and personality cannot be tested except as a part of the school life. Their importance, however, requires that ways be found of including their evaluation in the school record.

* BURT ; *The Backward Child*, pp. 594-95.

(4) Transfer to post-primary schools should be made on the basis of the special abilities and interests of the child. To ascertain these no externally imposed examinations are necessary. Instead, a carefully devised system of school records should be set up, showing the results of intelligence and standardised tests, indicating special scientific and artistic interests and achievements, and making an assessment of social and moral qualities. No privileges unconnected with its special character should be granted to any particular type of school, as this practice tends to harmful class division within the nation.

(5) The younger the child the more unsuitable is a written examination whether for entrance to a higher form of education or for the assessment of the pupil's ability and attainments on leaving the elementary school. Whatever may be said for the gradual elimination of the external School-Leaving Examination from the age of 16 on, the case is established for the immediate abolition of all external examinations before that age.

(6) The School-Leaving Certificate Examinations should no longer be accepted by the universities as alternative to their own matriculation examinations, and only those who are genuine candidates for admission to the universities should be allowed to sit for entrance examinations to these institutions.

(7) The object of a School-Leaving Certificate, apart from its guarantee of a broad general education,

is to indicate to the employer the special abilities and achievements of the pupil in different spheres of activity. A combined score with such a verdict as "passed" or "failed" on the whole examination is, therefore, undesirable and often misleading. The more detailed the picture given, the more valuable the certificate to the prospective employer. All certificates should include some assessment of artistic and practical achievements as well as of social behaviour.

(8) In countries where the experiment has not yet been tried, entrance to the university should be granted to pupils from a limited number of specially selected schools solely on the basis of a carefully prepared school record. This experiment should be carefully planned and its results duly watched and recorded."

(The Examination Tangle and the Way Out, 1935, Chapter X.)

CHAPTER VIII

TRAINING IN RESPONSIBILITY ; DISCIPLINE

The Uncongenial School.—"At times the rapidly growing boy comes to feel an intense and unreasoning aversion towards the school he has hitherto been fond of; and his dread of being shut up indoors, hemmed round by the four walls of a classroom, may develop into a mild degree of what in the neurotic would be diagnosed as claustrophobia—a horror of close confinement. The strain of sitting still for five hours a day over lessons for which he has neither taste nor ability is apt to induce in an active frame a vigorous recoil—if not during school-time, then directly school is over. . . . It is the weakness of most schools that they so seldom trouble to analyse the reasons for their failure. The child himself will often confess that school is a place that he hates; yet why he hates it he is usually unable, or at any rate unwilling, to explain. His lessons may be uncongenial; his school-fellows may be uncongenial; or his masters may be uncongenial. The dull child in a class too high for him, the bright child in a class too low, the child of lively spirits disciplined with an almost military strictness, the big lazy fellow in a class of sharp but timid little youngsters, the boy with a special mechanical bent for which an

academic curriculum can find no place, the girl with a peculiar disability in arithmetic who is forced day after day to attempt horrid but impossible sums, the weakling who from the poverty of his home or the peculiarity of his person becomes a butt for his more jocular companions, all are in a mood for grave or petty misconduct—ready to react against the vexations of their lot, and to vent their half-realised grievances in cheating, spitefulness, bullying, running away, or even attempted suicide.”*

Chief Responsibility of Schools.—It has always been accepted in all civilised countries that the primary aim of education is to bring about an all-round development of children and that it can be achieved by a sound system of moral training. It is unfortunate that, since direct moral instruction does not produce the desired results, teachers have generally ceased to think of their duties and responsibilities in terms of moral principles, although they talk of character-building and discipline as essential aspects of school work. But the following extract is as truly applicable to Indian as to English conditions and should be carefully taken to heart by all teachers.

“English educators have always professed to regard character-training as the chief of their responsibilities, but their actual practice has not always borne out such a profession. Character has been too

* BURT: *The Young Delinquent*, Ch. IV, pp. 181-82.

narrowly interpreted; its intellectual and emotional sides have been insufficiently recognised; and it has been too lightly taken for granted as an automatic product of time-honoured systems. . . . But when it is remembered that character-training is, broadly considered, a matter of forming certain habits, whether intellectual, emotional or moral, it will at once be realised how vigilantly the teacher must watch the reaction of the children to their school life and what careful adjustments of means to ends he must devise.

"Character-training cannot be treated as a subject, nor does it produce quick returns that can readily be measured or assessed. It can indeed be assisted to a certain extent, by direct methods and the recognition of its importance by critics of education is frequently accompanied by demands for more direct moral instruction. But in the main character-training must be an indirect process. Yet the result will be by no means a by-product; the aim of the teacher will be conscious and direct."*

Different forms of training may make the pupils efficient in various ways. "They may make them efficient readers, writers, mathematicians, linguists, scientists, book-keepers, lawyers, gardeners, masons, engineers, and so on. But they have regard only to one aspect of a man's nature, and they seek to impart

* *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers, Board of Education, England.*

to it some special form of skill or accomplishment. But, strictly regarded, other forms of training are all technical as compared with moral training; for whereas they seek to develop some specific accomplishment, moral training has regard to the man as a whole, and seeks to equip him with the skill which any man, and every man, as such, should have.

"Thus moral training is considered necessary not merely for a particular class or profession, but for everybody, without any exception, high and low, rich and poor, clever and dull, learned and ignorant . . . It is not sufficient for a person to be a good scholar or a good workman; he must also be a good man . . . In short, the conscience must be educated, as well as the mind informed or the intellect developed."*

Our schools must constantly try to answer such questions as "Have they been training their children's mind fully?" "Are their intellectual character being properly formed?" "Are their emotions being adjusted and trained in such a manner that balanced minds are being formed?" "Are they being correctly educated into harmonious and responsible social beings?"

Internal and External Harmony.—Bertrand Russell puts the problem of harmony in the following significant words:—

"If a man's life is to be satisfactory, whether from his own point of view or from that of the world at

* MACKENZIE: *Instruction in Indian Secondary Schools*, Ch. I.

large, it requires two kinds of harmony: an internal harmony of intelligence, emotion and will, and an external harmony with the will of others. In both these respects, existing education is defective. Internal harmony is prevented by the religious and moral teaching given in infancy and youth, which usually continues to govern the emotions but not the intelligence in later life, while the will is left vacillating, inclining to one side or the other according as emotion or intelligence has momentarily the upper hand. Such conflicts could be prevented if the young were taught doctrines which adult intelligence can accept

"The matter of external harmony with the wills of others is more difficult, and not capable of a complete solution. Competition and co-operation are both natural human activities, and it is difficult to suppress competition completely without destroying individuality. But it is not individual and unorganised competition that does the harm in the modern world. The dangerous form of disharmony in the modern world is the organised form, between nations and between classes. So long as this form of disharmony persists, the world cannot enjoy the advantages which science and technical skill have made possible. The disharmony between nations is encouraged by education in the present day, and could be brought to an end by the introduction of internationalist propaganda in schools."*

* *Education and Social Order*, Ch. XVI.

Here in a nutshell we have the two-fold aim of school work made clear, *viz.*, the creation of an internal harmony of intelligence, emotion and will in the individual and of an external harmony with the will of others. This aim of making the children *personally* and *socially* efficient should never be lost sight of by teachers, while it should be constantly remembered that although the methods by which the aim can be realised are complicated and difficult to follow they must be adopted during the years corresponding to the school life of the children.

Nunn on Discipline and School Order.—"The proper aim of education is positive, to encourage free activity, not negative, to confine or to repress it. What becomes then, of the concept of *discipline* which is so essential in the traditional ideas about school training? To gain a clear answer to this question we must first distinguish between discipline and school *order*, and see that though they overlap and indeed interpenetrate, they are derived from quite different psychological roots. School order consists in the maintenance of the conditions necessary if school life is to fulfil its purpose; and is most effective when based on imitation and the routine tendency. Discipline, on the other hand, is not an external thing, like order, but something that touches the inmost springs of conduct. It consists in the submission of one's impulses and powers to a regulation which imposes form upon their chaos, and

brings efficiency and economy where there would otherwise be ineffectiveness and waste. Though parts of our nature may resist this control, its acceptance must, on the whole, be willing acceptance—the spontaneous movement of a nature in which there is an inborn impulse towards greater perfection or “expressiveness.”

“Thus the process of discipline is akin to consolidation; it may, in fact, be regarded as a higher type of consolidation, differing from the lower type in that it involves some degree of conscious purpose. . . . In all cases there is, in the disciplinary process, a definite psychological sequence. First, there must be something that one genuinely desires to do, and one must be conscious either of one’s inability or of someone else’s superior ability to do it. Next, the perception of inferiority must awaken the negative self-feeling with its impulse to fix attention upon the points in which one’s own performance falls short or the model excels. Lastly comes the repetition of effort controlled now by a better concept of the proper procedure, and accompanied, if successful, by an outflow of positive self-feeling which tends to make the improved scheme permanent. . . .

“The discipline a child gains at school from his teachers and his comrades is of the same character. It is a directive influence, which shows him the better way and stimulates him to make it his own. The discipline of a fine school tradition works in the same way. The eager boy is impressed by what he feels,

however obscurely, to be an ample and worthy manner of life, and is proud to become an exemplar of it. Nor is there anything essentially different in the discipline derived from school studies, such as mathematics or science or classics. For here again what the young student should assimilate is the superior control of thought or expression achieved by great investigators or writers. In short, his position is that of an apprentice striving to learn the trick of the master hand.”*

These ideas of a great educator should make teachers seriously consider whether they have been right in concentrating all their energies and abilities generation after generation over books and subjects and examinations only, leaving the development of character to have its own doubtful course. They have so long generally failed to realise that, transcending all so-called intellectual training imparted through book education,—a training whose exact nature and form can hardly be discerned in the behaviour or performance of the general body of the student community—there is the human soul in the children crying for life and light and freedom to grow and blossom. Indian teachers seldom look at Indian children—their own children,—in a sane and sympathetic manner; I may almost say that the human element is lacking in our schools. Otherwise, we should find a real atmosphere in them—the atmosphere which automatically pervades,

* *Education : Its Data and First Principles*, pp. 198—200.

trains and ennobles the lives of teachers and taught. We hear of Eton, Rugby and Harrow but seldom feel that there is the greatest possible need of having similar schools in India with a reputation for their 'atmosphere,' tone and tradition, without which all talk of character-building or solid and lasting training would be pure moonshine.

Importance of School Atmosphere.—"When a boy is admitted to a school, he enters a new society, he becomes a member of a corporate body, he partakes of a larger life. . . . he breathes a new moral atmosphere, and he insensibly assimilates a certain moral tone. He enters into innumerable moral relations with his teachers and school-fellows, and he realises consciously or unconsciously that he has voluntarily or involuntarily to adapt himself to the school system . . . he must be in his place at a particular time, he must do a certain piece of work by a specified time, he must play in a particular game in a particular place. He sees, too, that certain things are honoured and others are dishonoured; that good work is commended, slackness is condemned, bullying is disgraceful, shirking on the playfield is despised, pluck and endeavour are cheered experience, as in the larger life of the world, is his teacher, and the lessons of this best of teachers are not the less valuable because they are learnt automatically and imperceptibly. They sink and soak into the boy's nature and, without his being aware of it, enter into his brain and blood. He sees for himself

that certain things are good and others evil; that punctuality is better than unpunctuality, that honest work is better than indolence, that straightforwardness is better than dishonesty, that unselfishness is better than selfishness. . . .

"But it must be noted that these convictions are produced not merely by the action of the law or discipline of the society working on the passive side of a boy's nature. For he is not merely a spectator; he is also an actor with a part to play. He cannot escape from action, from the exercise of the will. He has continually to choose whether he will do his work well or ill, whether he will try to excel or not to excel, both in school and in the playground. He must make up his mind, for example, whether he will put his back into a stiff piece of composition, or do justice enough to avoid punishment; whether he will stand up to a fast ball at the wicket, or run away from it; whether he will play up hard in the losing game or give up in despair. The knowledge that the law and public opinion of the school approve of the one course and disapprove of the other is a stimulus and a help. But it is his own business to respond by his own choice and effort to the claims made upon him. Hence the discipline of the school system works upon the active principle of his nature and assists him to build up habits which ultimately harden into character. . . .

"The soul of the process is action,—action from first to last—action regulated by the force of law.

Everything depends on what he does, on what others do; on what he sees them doing. Nothing else can take the place of regulated action. In other words, he must be taught by example. . . . Hence the vital necessity of surrounding the unformed nature with the atmosphere of good action, of making a good school society.

"But action implies an agent, and consequently the only guarantee of a good school is a succession of fit persons for the office of the teacher It is true that no teacher can be a paragon of all the virtues. He may be well content if he can leave a memory of honest work, faithfully performed." *

Rabindranath Tagore, referring to the atmosphere of his famous school at Shanti-Niketan, speaks of it in his own inimitable language thus :—

"Children have their active sub-conscious mind which, like the tree, has the power to gather its food from the surrounding atmosphere. For them the atmosphere is a great deal more important than rules and methods, building appliances, class teaching and text-books. The earth has her mass of substance in her land and water. But, if I may be allowed figurative language, she finds her inspiration of freedom, the stimulation of her life, from her atmosphere. It is, as it were, the envelopment of her perpetual education. It brings from her depth responses in colour and perfume,

* MACKENZIE: *Instruction in Indian Secondary Schools*, Ch. I.

music and movement, her incessant self-revelation, continual wonders of the unexpected. In his society man has the diffuse atmosphere of culture always about himself. It has the effect of keeping his mind sensitive to his racial inheritance, to the current of influences that come from tradition; it makes it easy for him unconsciously to imbibe the concentrated wisdom of ages. But in our educational organisations we behave like miners, digging only for things substantial, through a laborious process of mechanical toil; and not like a tiller of soil, whose work is in a perfect collaboration with nature, in a passive relationship with the atmosphere.

"I tried to create an atmosphere in my institution, giving it the principal place in our programme of teaching. For, atmosphere there must be for developing the sensitiveness of soul, for affording mind its true freedom of sympathy. Apathy and ignorance are the worst forms of bondage for man; they are the inevitable walls of confinement that we carry round us when we are in their grip. In educational organisations our reasoning faculties have to be nourished in order to allow our mind its freedom in the world of truth, our imagination for the world which belongs to art, and our sympathy for the world of human relationship....

".... My children have dimly begun to think that education is a permanent part of the adventure of life, that it is not like a painful hospital treatment

for curing them of the congenital malady of their ignorance, but is a function of health, the natural expression of their minds' vitality. Thus, I have just had the good fortune to watch the first shoot of life peeping out in a humble corner of our organisation."*

Who can say whether the absence of the right kind of inspiring atmosphere in our educational institutions has not been responsible for the creation of an aimless, confused and almost imbecile student community? It can, on the other hand, be easily suggested that, with a more deliberate attention paid to the improvement of the tone and tradition of our schools, there would be visible a wholesome change in the mentality and conduct of the young population of the land. A good deal of reform, however, is needed in our whole educational organisation before this objective can be attained.

The New Discipline.—In Western educational literature, especially that section of it which deals with discipline and training of the social side of a child's nature, we seem to have a revelation, indicating the real springs of happy learning and efficient conduct, which makes us wonder whether the present educational system of India, with its age-worn schemes of study and organisation and its examination-bound outlook, is not a grotesque blunder. Our children are struggling laboriously and uninspiringly and wasting the

* A POET'S SCHOOL: *Vishwabharati Bulletin* No. 9, pp. 17—19.

finest years of their lives for pitifully meagre results, while the children of other lands 'seem to be playing their way into rich experiences and large abilities.' The socialised ideal school is yet a far-off dream to us,—a dream which has yet to be dreamt by teachers, parents and authorities alike. These latter are still too full of the old ideas of fear, obedience and compulsion as essential elements in the process of discipline; their outlook and practices have yet to change out of shape before they can be expected to treat children as normal, natural human beings, who have to be liberated from the sickening grip of force and control before the exact nature of their growth can be properly realised.

The general philosophic conception of the 'New' education is that, in every child, there are potentialities, which build up the total moral substance with which he is born in this world. There are potentialities for good and for evil, and the functions of the environment should be to stimulate the good and redirect the evil. But, just as it is false and dangerous to allow such freedom that both good and evil will be strengthened, so it is false and dangerous to try to suppress or crush the evil by force or repression. Every fault should be considered as a force wrongly handled or directed, which, if carefully readjusted, would ultimately strengthen the individual instead of weakening him.

This principle, if rightly understood, will at once show that discipline is neither the old idea of implicit

or eternal submission to external control nor the wrongly supposed modern idea of unlicensed freedom. It is really something deeper, being intimately connected with the *social tendencies and motives* found deep-seated in child nature. The most marked of these are:—

- (1) Fear of disapproval;
- (2) Desire for approbation, especially from one's equals;
- (3) Co-operative impulse, seeking mutual welfare;
- (4) Spirit of service and help to others.

Through ages of evolution these have come to be manifested quite clearly,—perhaps more clearly than the individualistic or self-seeking tendencies, such as greed, arrogance, vanity, partiality, jealousy and other narrow and (by themselves) unproductive tendencies, which can only dominate in very young children, or in those of abnormally low intellect, or in those who are under the stress of passion or physical needs. From the point of view of individual and social welfare, therefore, it is clear that some discipline is necessary to adjust these and similar non-social instincts and tendencies to social ends. And it is here that gregariousness, suggestibility and love come to the aid of the educator, who can utilise them in the manner best suited to the age and stage of development of the child.

This basic modern idea of school discipline as careful adjustment along natural lines is not altogether new, for the most powerful influence which tended to

change the old idea of discipline by force was that exerted by the educational theory of Froebel. He asserted that the child had a right to fulfil his destiny *as a child* and not as a potential citizen and adult, and based his doctrine and practice of education on the kindergarten or 'education through play.' "Let the child enjoy his natural childish activities," said he, "and he will in that way develop into the normal healthy adult." The success of the Montessori schools of the present century has fully justified this prediction of Froebel.

Obedience.—It is highly questionable whether the old method of producing blind and unintelligent obedience was a desirable social virtue. No sane public opinion can ever desire to have a society of implicitly obedient people. "We surely do not want our schoolboys to obey the demagogue asking them to rise and slay the oppressors or the street quack advertising his Brain Pills as a sure panacea for bad memory. We aim at civic and social virtues tempered with intelligence. Patriotism, loyalty, obedience are relative terms and may sometimes be as harmful socially as they are at other times valuable. It all depends on the object of our loyalty or obedience as to whether these qualities enlarge or belittle our vision."* Most virtues need intelligent interpretation and the cultivation of no single virtue is enough,

* STURT AND OAKDEN : *Matter and Method in Education*.

for no aspect or requirement of modern life is simple and not complex. The word 'obedience' does not and cannot satisfactorily express what we really want in order to be able to cover the various social virtues required in children; and it is very doubtful if compulsion can satisfactorily bring out anything good or vital from the inside of the blooming child mind. Proper relation between one human being and another is really the result of natural growth and a product of 'a developed sentiment of positive benevolence,' which coercion has always injured more quickly than other means.

Fear.—Prof. Jean Piaget of Geneva uses words in this connection which are simply remarkable. He says, "It is the habits we have acquired at school of repetition and obedience, of accepting without thought the moral and intellectual opinions of adults, which make it so difficult for us when we grow up to rid ourselves of the herd opinions imposed upon us unawares by the authority of the group. . . coercion leads to an external morality which demands obedience to legal rules as such, whatever their nature and intentions. . . ."

"The cooperative spirit has not yet penetrated society as a whole. Why? Because of our education. It is a curious fact that all our traditional school education rests upon a social attitude which adult society is tending to eliminate from its ideal,—upon coercion as opposed to cooperation. All the social

advances we have made in various intellectual and moral spheres are due to the fact that we have rid ourselves intellectually and morally of our self-centredness and of the results of imposed authority. But it is considered natural that coercion should reign in the school and that children should be subjected to all the restraints against which grown-ups have warred for centuries. The only social relationship allowed by the old-fashioned school is that of master and pupil, that is, the relation of an inferior who passively obeys to a superior who is the incarnation of all the intellectual and moral virtues. . . . Such a conception of the teacher, as an incarnation of the coercive powers of the group in relation to the rising generation, neglects precisely the cooperative tendencies which exist in the human soul and in children's hearts, and which it remains for the new education to cherish and bid flower."*

Psycho-analysis is gradually making the fact clear that the common use of fear-producing devices for keeping children under control does more harm than good to them. Fear is the emotion which accompanies the working of that instinct which we may call 'escape from danger.' We believe that the human instincts have developed for the preservation and well-being of the race, and consequently this instinct and its emotion, fear, must be regarded as having a constructive as well as a destructive side.

* Pamphlet No. 4, "Education To-morrow" Series, published by the New Education Fellowship, England.

In individuals in whom it is weak the resulting action leads them to recklessness, danger and destruction; those, who have it strong, need help and guidance so as to be able to control or overcome danger. Without going into psychological details we may state that, in using the emotion of fear for the training of conduct in the child, we may have to choose between the development of fear-obsessions and the inculcation of the habit of cautious and judicious action. We certainly want that our children should learn to advance through life with head erect, firm step, clear vision and an infinite capacity for facing and dealing with new or difficult situations. To this end daring and courage are essential, and so every courage-sapping device of education, both at home and school, should be severely condemned.

But mere reckless courage is not useful in the complex business of life. It is necessary for the child from his earliest days to be guided and trained, through rich and varied experience, to protect himself from unnecessary risks; it will not do for the teacher or the parent to let the child alone or, on the opposite extreme, to spoon-feed him and overwhelm his life with do's and don'ts. It is being discovered as a result of careful study that the disciplinarian has mostly been at fault when the child has got unruly, perverted or neurotic. The child is never a born sinner, but, if he inherits undesirable tendencies, the parents should not further foster and aggravate them by injudicious

and authoritative behaviour particularly in the first four or five years of the child's life.

Psychologists say that much which passes under the name of discipline is an aggressive action directed against children on account of impulses which have not been adjusted in the personality of the disciplinarian himself. Those, who attempt, for example, to force on a child a standard of good behaviour that is never found in practice, are being aggressive more on account of their own faults and weaknesses than of those of the children. The truth is never suppressed except temporarily through fear; the child knows the truth about the faults of his parents and teachers and easily perceives the falsehood and inconsistency that lie behind the so-called moral standards of behaviour. He can certainly be, and usually is, compelled to keep quiet or surrender to suppression or deception only in the face of awful fears. It seems very true that we discipline the child for mistakes of our own making and demand of him a conduct which we do not find in ourselves. In other words, we interpret the child's behaviour to suit our mood instead of regarding it as a reaction to our attitude. "Children are realists by nature and hence they start with accepting the admonitions of their superiors only superficially and pretending to curb their impulses; but, later on, as external pressure lessens, either of two things happens: either they cast off the well-meant fictions and turn into normal beings; or else

they permanently substitute the fictions for realities and become neurotic.”*

If distortion or destruction of any part of the nature of the child is not our aim then the need for a long list of fear-producing devices practically disappears. There is hardly any special problem of discipline if we recognise the fact that the child, as a child, is as sensitive, self-respecting and intelligent on all matters of personal feelings and relationships as the adult is as an adult. Such records of teacher-pupil dealings as “The Problem Child” and “The Problem Parent” by Neill unambiguously point to the same fact. If we recognise the child in this way, then the so-called problem of discipline becomes the general problem of rational dealings between two persons (*vis.*, the adult and the child) equally endowed and equipped for social harmony and equally desiring it. But, if by tactless display of superior physical force or by callous handling of the trustful affection of the child, we spoil the relationship, then indeed it becomes a special problem, *i.e.*, how to handle a child who has been rendered timid, distrusting, sullen, rebellious or neurotic by our own behaviour.

It is generally recognised now that, in the first three or four years of life, the foundations of physical and psychic health are laid. In these years the infant not only grows in size very rapidly but passes

* *The New Era*, July, 1929.

through great psychic experiences and transformations. If undesirable habits are found to be forming at this stage, serious efforts should be made to find out their origin, and substitute for them better and proper mode of action. If undesirable habits have once formed in childhood it would be difficult to eradicate them later on. The use of so-called 'disciplinary measures,' which are only different forms of physical coercion, can hardly serve any purpose other than stirring up the spirit of challenge in grown-up pupils.

Sociological Theory of Discipline.—"There are at least four fundamental principles necessary to good discipline: (1) it must harmonise with social ideals outside the schoolroom; (2) it must be positive and constructive rather than negative and restrictive; (3) it must be indirect rather than direct in method; and (4) it must be administered on the highest plane which the pupils can understand.

".....As it is impossible to have a well-equipped and continuously progressive school in a stagnant or undeveloped community, so it is impossible to use at all times the highest methods of discipline in a district where family, church and state control are autocratic, narrow and inefficient. Likewise the use of the lower types of discipline is inexcusable in an environment where the higher levels are maintained outside the schoolroom. . . .Before cases of discipline are handled, the teacher should know all that it is

possible to know of the nature and heredity and training of the particular individual to be dealt with. . . .

"... Negative discipline has its uses in maintaining present efficiency and inhibiting pernicious habits, but its usefulness is limited. On the other hand, positive discipline is useful not only in preventing present disorder and indecorum but in establishing fixed habits of orderliness, obedience and helpfulness So the teacher must not merely check violations of the school regimen, but he must build the moral foundations of future conduct. He must secure reasonable conformity to rule at present, and not fail to stimulate motives for right reactions in later years. He must dominate in the schoolroom, but should make his discipline educative enough to carry its influence beyond his immediate jurisdiction.

"... Direct discipline is the exercise of control by very evident means. It is conscious discipline on the part of both teacher and pupil. Its typical form is the direct command to do or not to do certain things. Indirect discipline means control through indirect means that may be conscious on the part of the teacher but must be unconscious on the part of the child Direct discipline becomes prominent only in case of failure to meet the ordinary demands of associated life. It is the type of control adapted to the unfit. While children of school age are more likely to require control by direct command than older people, the larger the amount of dominance that can be secured through

unconscious influence the more nearly will the training given harmonise with the requirements of later years

" The planes or levels of human control, for clearness' sake, may be reduced to three,—the plane of force, the plane of personal domination, and the plane of social pressure. The discipline on these levels may successively be called the military, the personal and the social. Military discipline is authoritative, severe, is given from above and ignores personality. It is the discipline of set regulations, of enforced conformity to rule, of immediate punishment, generally of a physical nature. Likeness of aim, likeness of method and likeness of product are its foundations. Unquestioning obedience and promptness of service are the chief virtues it demands and cultivates It has its uses and values in the schoolroom. The authority of the teacher must be respected. Obedience and conformity to necessary rules must be secured Moreover the virtues growing out of this enforced conformity are not to be despised. They are needed in life

"Personal discipline is the next higher level. Here the element of regulation has ceased to be conspicuous. Personality has been substituted for position as the basis of securing control. Fear has been replaced by respect as the pupil's motive for obedience This higher emotional appeal, together with its more humane methods of reaching the desired end

and its tendency to develop habits of response to the kind of stimuli most frequently met in general society, constitutes the basis for pronouncing it a new level The mainspring of obedience and loyalty to duty is the personal relation between the pupil and teacher as such. . . . It is the discipline of leadership and followership. . . . This relationship is not wanting in the classroom under good personal discipline, but it is shown more conspicuously in extra-curricular activities. Advisorship in literary, dramatic, athletic or other school enterprises offers fine opportunities for teacher leadership without consciousness of teacher domination.

"The highest level of discipline is the social. It is the one in which the teacher's authority is never surrendered but it seldom appears on the surface. It is largely unconscious discipline on the part of the child. Each pupil is made to feel that he is a real part of the working force of the school society. The school spirit and atmosphere have reached the point where the lateral pressure exerted by pupils upon each other is in harmony with the spirit exerted by the teacher. Government and discipline not only come down from above, but are radiated from the sides. Great is the teacher who can lead his pupils to govern themselves, and happy he who can keep in his school a social consciousness that will punish automatically the offender against good order and efficiency. . . .

"The prime essential of good discipline is to make conditions so nearly perfect, and to adjust

school relationships so nicely, that the machinery of control will be noiseless. Discipline that approaches the ideal forestalls ordinary difficulties by intensifying interest in daily duties and building up a school spirit that will not tolerate trifling or disloyalty. It accepts the problem of youthful control as an opportunity to educate for social control by giving to youth as much training in self-control and social participation as is possible.”*

“*Damaged Humanity*”—So much space has been deliberately devoted to emphasising certain aspects of character-training, because Indian schools have to recast their aims and methods in a severely practical manner if the young people of the country have to be saved from further degeneration. Teachers must change their outlook and practices, relegate books, curricula and examinations to a subordinate place in the scheme of school activities and adopt a clear moral aim in all their dealings with their pupils. For they cannot shut their eyes to the sad realities of the day, to the fact that even the youngest children coming to the school are physically weak and have their impulses repressed and distorted in a variety of ways, to the meagre and unproductive methods of schools leading the children nowhere. The following emphatic remarks of a well-known English educationalist, although made before an American audience, are

*W. R. SMITH : *An Introduction to Educational Sociology*, Ch. XIII.

thoroughly applicable to India to-day and must be seriously taken to heart by all honest teachers:—

"As I walk the streets of your cities and study the faces and figures of the crowds on the side walks, I see a thing which I have often observed with alarm in the great cities of my own country. I see a large amount, an alarmingly large amount, of what I can only call *damaged humanity*,—men, women and children whose appearance clearly denotes that they are living woefully inadequate lives, inadequate physically, to begin with, and with all the mental and moral inadequacies that follow from that. Damaged humanity is the peculiar product of life in great cities. In its totality it constitutes an enormous bad debt on the books of society, and if allowed to go on unchecked, may ultimately prove the bankruptcy of civilisation, for not even a revolution can attain its object if damaged humanity is the material it works with. These people may not be poor, nor ill clad, nor positively sick, but they impress me as biologically degenerate. . . . I see multitudes, especially of women and children, who are visibly decaying as human beings. Hard indeed is the task of those who would save their souls or introduce them to mental culture or build them up into good citizens. If we cannot undo this damage in the adult let us do what we can to prevent it in children."*

* L. P. JACKS: *Education Through Recreation*, Ch. X.

Something has already been said about the need of an inspiring school atmosphere. But there can be no atmosphere in schools where teaching means talking and activity means following other people's doctrines. There must be initiative on the part of the headmasters and teachers to get new things done by boys, or where old things have to be done, to get them done not in the dull and uninspiring old way but in a new spirit. Talking and precept have to yield place to active occupation which will provide nourishment to the developing nature of the children. Their present dull and listless ways will, in an atmosphere of free activity, soon disappear and many unsuspected powers will be rapidly awakened. Under stress of natural necessity they would ask for skilful occupations of all kinds and the school will grow into a miniature society in which wholesome fellowships would spontaneously form themselves. So long as the co-operative and creative impulses of the children are made the basis of their training and development, they will naturally lead to the formation of moral and healthy human beings. *All* teachers have to think and act not in terms of the subjects and classes which they teach but in terms of the fellowship or partnership in the school social organisation, always calling for an intimate human relationship between the teacher and taught. Each teacher has to act as a sympathetic and responsible person whose chief objective is to bring up the children as sensible, healthy

and responsible human beings, irrespective of the fact whether they are strong or weak in the school subjects. Moral training or character-building at school, thus conceived, plainly resolves itself into a series of well-graded and suitable activities, participation in which steadily trains up the pupils in various forms of responsibility, which constitute the foundations of character and conduct.

Present-Day Activities.—The various activities which have been introduced in our schools during the last two dozen years have failed to produce the desired results simply because headmasters and teachers have generally failed to realise their importance. Scouting, First Aid, Junior Red Cross Work, Excursions, Social Service, Debating Societies, and similar other activities have mostly been treated as outside the school curriculum and as subordinate to the teaching of the so-called 'prescribed' subjects. The playground has not yet been made the training-ground of character for all the children of our schools. The fact is that, if the teaching of the subjects has been conducted without a living philosophy of education inspiring the outlook and practices of our teachers it has still the sanction and guidance of a tradition. But the new activities suffer from a very great handicap, *viz.*, the absence of a basic philosophy brought home to teachers and taught alike.

"Student participation will never be successful as long as administrators seek to justify extra-curricular

activities on any other basis than as an integral part of an educational philosophy. It might be well emphasised that extra-curricular activities will never render their greatest service until every administrator and teacher has included them as a vital factor in working out the objectives of secondary education in the twentieth century. . . .

"The attitude, habits and ideals which high school students are going to develop from their contacts with one another have only a limited space in the mental picture which these inexperienced teachers have of student growth. This is doubtless due to the fact that extra-curricular activities have come so recently into the high school, and have developed at so rapid a rate, that no attempt to state a philosophy of their educational value has appeared in an accessible form. . . . As soon as the philosophy of extra-curricular activities has been made an integral part of all courses built up in the development of the secondary education, we shall see its influence at once in the high schools of the nation. . . .

"... The great educational problem of the present is to secure real leadership for these activities so that they may become an integral part of educational philosophy and practice. If they are malformed and (to any extent) shrivelled in moral influence, it is because administrators and teachers have failed to provide this type of leadership. . . .

" These activities are vital in the development of intellect, not because they yield a mass of acquired knowledge, but because they lead to a real power to make use of facts in the solution of life problems. Real intellectual growth is the development of power to use facts and principles in laying the foundations for a philosophy of life. This philosophy shall be the guiding force in the acquisition of new and enriching facts and principles which are fitted into a programme of life which is based upon habits, attitudes and ideals firmly implanted through actual practice. . . .

" If a majority of the adolescent boys and girls are coming in contact with these activities either directly or indirectly and are in this manner being exposed to a practical training in citizenship, social consciousness and moral attitudes, they are a vital programme in working out the philosophy of secondary education. The breadth of the extra-curricular programme in any high school makes possible contacts in all these directions for all students, no matter what particular interests they have."*

In plain language all this comes to mean that teachers and headmasters must accept the fact that various activities are necessary in the school to develop all those qualities which constitute character and that all these activities should be graded to suit the natural

* *Extraclass and Intramural Activities*, by Roberts and Draper (Heath), Ch. II.

requirements of children at different ages. The earlier such activities are introduced the better, and they must be continued as an integral part of school training from the lowest to the highest class, and as character-building and training in responsibility are not 'subjects' in the current sense of the term, *all* teachers have to attend to them, whether inside or outside the classroom. Serious, incessant and sympathetic attention to this matter has to be paid by all teachers, and they have to set personal example of right conduct before they can expect the same in their pupils.

Training in Responsibility.—If the schools accept training in social responsibility and citizenship as their most important duty they must think of devising ways and means of promoting the development in children of such essential habits and virtues as punctuality, courtesy, fair-play, honesty, self-control, co-operation, service, industry, health, promptness and so on. These habits and virtues can grow only in a healthy school atmosphere in which there is a sound 'public opinion' in their favour. They are all 'practical' matters in the truest sense of the term and can develop only through practice,—day-to-day practice both by teachers and taught in close co-operation with one another.

In those schools in which careful attention has been devoted to this matter it has been found that even small children are capable of showing a high

sense of responsibility if they are entrusted with a task and allowed the fullest amount of freedom to carry it out. Teachers in this country have yet to learn patience with children; they have to accept the faith that children are capable of doing their best only when they are trusted and set free from the arrogant bondage of adult imposition. The vast literature on Play-Way, Montessori schools and the Project Method should create this faith in our teachers so that they may set upon the noble task of liberating and training the energies and abilities of their pupils, which can be done only through activities. And it is wrong to suppose that such activities cannot be conducted in the classroom in connection with the teaching of the various subjects, as has already been discussed in Chapter V.

Some of the activities through which children can be trained in responsibility at school are : Athletic and Health Activities (*viz.*, games, sports, practice of health habits, keeping of health records, etc.), service and citizenship activities (*viz.*, Traffic Control and Safety First, Management of School Lunch and Water-supply, Scouting, Junior Red Cross, Social Service, etc.), Literary, Dramatic and Subject-Matter Activities (*viz.*, School or Class Magazines, Debating Societies, Literary Clubs, Dramatic Clubs, Nature Study, etc.), Student Self-Government (*viz.*, Care of class furniture and books, Court of Honour, Discipline, Management of Class and School Functions, etc.). This list is only

suggestive, but all teachers and headmasters have to remember that there will be no clash between curricular and extra-curricular activities, but rather they would flow together in close co-operation, if the following principles are carefully observed: (1) Pupils best learn by doing, not individually but in a group; (2) They do best, if self-directed rather than when directed by others, although they often need just a little help; (3) Activities, in order to succeed in their purpose, must have a real background of life; in other words, they must grow out of, and into, life; (4) The best work is done by small units and not by large groups; (5) Teachers must let the children finish before interfering, unless positive harm is being caused to anybody.

If we accept Dewey's definition of education as "that reconstruction or reorganisation of experience which adds to the meaning of experience, and which increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience," we must increase the ability of the children to act efficiently in different life situations by means of organised school situations in which they have to act in relations of leadership and followership. It is hardly justifiable, for example, that one child acts as class monitor or team captain for a considerable time, while others merely follow him. It is quite conceivable that the efficiency of a football team will not suffer if the members were to act as its captain by rotation. The point to be remembered here is that

those children who give indications of leadership should be provided with opportunities for gaining experience as leaders and captains and thus developing their qualities of responsibility and organisation. It is not the current idea of the teachers' leadership and the pupils' subordination that is educationally valuable ; it is rather the teachers' ability to let the pupils' groups act and function in the form of a self-governing body.

Student Self-Government.—The various activities just suggested and similar others which every school can easily devise would provide excellent opportunities for training pupils in the art of shouldering responsibility, but it will be found that various school problems, including many common acts of indiscipline on the part of the children themselves, will best be solved by having what is now commonly called student self-government. There is no doubt that it is the highest form of government and hence the most difficult to administer. It cannot succeed unless the three-fold qualities of leadership, fellowship, and discipleship have been properly formed in both the teachers and the pupils. But in actual practice it has been found possible to delegate some of the teachers' authority and responsibility to the students with the best results.* Some form of constitution is adopted

* See *Classroom Republic* by Craddock and *The Problem Child* by A. S. Neill.

providing a governmental device by which the students administer discipline from within. Naturally, the final authority rests with the teacher, but the less it is exercised the better will be the opportunity for the boys to learn self-government so far as their maturity and intelligence will permit. There will always be careful and cautious supervision on the part of the teacher and there must exist mutual confidence of teachers and pupils in each other's motives and judgments. If proper cautions are observed, any carefully framed form of constitution for student self-government will provide discipline that will be social and really educative, but no teacher should be deluded by imagining that a self-government scheme will work itself without proper guidance and supervision. The task needs tact and patience and a faith in human nature and hence is not within the power of every teacher, but the great possibilities held forth and the splendid results of experiments carried out in other lands make an appeal to our teachers to decide whether our children should be stunted and crippled by control and repression or carefully trained as better and more effective social entities.

Treatment of Undesirable Conduct.—Whatever has been said so far refers to the vast majority of children, mostly normal beings, who, however, often feel inclined to act in an abnormal or undesirable manner. There is also the fact that even in the best of schools we are sure to find children who, although

not quite abnormal beings, are what may be called *problem children* and who may become a menace to society if not properly cared for and treated. The problem of the young offender is an eternal one for the parent and the teacher; both have to be ready always to face the problem, and handle him most judiciously in the midst of society and with the least harm and greatest good to it.

The fault has long been with the method of treatment of offenders. It has already been explained how proper social activity and intercourse will gradually evolve normal and desirable conduct in the vast majority of children and yet it is a fact that some of these normal children, along with the few potential criminals who are always to be found in every young society, sometimes indulge in behaviour which cannot be tolerated or allowed to continue. And it is here that measures of punishment have generally been adopted in a traditional and mechanical manner but almost always with doubtful results. In fact, a well-known educationist has rather bluntly expressed himself on the futility of punishments in the following words:—

“Punishment is always an act of hate. In the act of punishing the parent is hating the child,—and the child realises it. . . . Punishment arouses hate. The punished child grows into a punishing father or mother, and the cycle of hate goes down the years. . . .

"It is possible that punishment in most homes is punishment for disobedience. In schools disobedience and insolence are looked upon as bad crimes. When I was a whacking dominie I always was most angry at the boy who disobeyed me. My little dignity was wounded. I was the tin god of the classroom, just as Daddy is the tin god of the home. . . .

"An impious question comes up : Why should a child obey? He must obey to satisfy the adult's desire for power. To shout "Bout Turn" to a company of infantry is rather thrilling. Yet, why should a child obey? Well, well ! He may get his feet wet if he disobeys the command to put on shoes; he may fall over the cliff if he disobeys father's shouts. Yes, the child should obey when it is a matter of life and death. But how often is a child punished for disobeying in matters of life and death? Seldom, if ever. He is generally hugged and called "My Precious ! Thank God. You're safe !" It is for small things that a child is usually punished. . . .

"To punish is to assume that a child is responsible, that it has the will to do what the adult calls right. . . . The children who steal are unconscious of their reasons for stealing. The child who flies into violent tempers cannot control himself. Punishment is as useless as it is dangerous. It certainly frightens the child, but the wrong part of the child ; it terrifies the conscious and leaves untouched the unconscious. . . .

"Flogging has always failed and always will fail, for it chastises the body without helping the mind. It is the most un-Christian act in the world. It is given by people who are sadistic by nature. It is vengeance rather than punishment. The argument that it is given as a deterrent is a pure rationalisation. No man is bad enough to merit flogging. . . .

"We cannot punish if we try to understand. Let us honestly realise that when we punish a child we are venting the anger that belongs to something else. . . ."

Teachers and parents, faced with an unmanageable child or a juvenile offender, have to 'try to understand' the situation first and not rush impatiently to those time-honoured but futile measures of punishment with which we all are so painfully familiar. It is not the offender whom we should punish, but the offence which we should tackle.

"The remedies will be adapted not to the nature of the offence but to the nature of the factors provoking it. Already, the outworn maxim of traditional justice, that the punishment should fit the crime, is now giving place to the sounder principle that the treatment should fit the delinquent." (Burt.)

Thus, it is inevitable that all undesirable conduct has to be studied and diagnosed correctly before we can do lasting good to the offender and teachers have to understand clearly the lines along which this

* A. S. NEILL: *The Problem Child*, Ch. XI,

important duty can be carried out. The following observations from a celebrated psychologist should be studied and noted as suggesting the guiding principles in this connection :—

“Sheer, uncompromising suppression is likely to be unavailing, and often worse than unavailing. Whether the offender be punished or not, whether or not he be segregated or imprisoned, all purely negative measures should be supplemented by positive and constructive efforts of assistance. His emotions must be trained as well as his intelligence; his instincts must be educated as well as his wits. Most juvenile delinquency is, in the last resort, the effect, not of weak or wilful sinning, but of misdirected energy; and is to be cured not by an effort to stamp out that energy (a stark impossibility) but by directing it anew and guiding it aright. . . .

“*Theft (the Acquisitive Impulse)*.—It is common practice, when a boy has stolen, for his parents to stop his pocket-money, thus, illogically enough, supplying him with an additional incentive for stealing afresh. To urge that his pocket-money should be, not docked but doubled, may seem paradoxical. Yet the readiest way to cure the robber is to use him with unexpected generosity; give him, not only pennies to spend, but sixpences to save, and a cash-box of his own to lock them in. Ownership is the best school of responsibility and faithfulness. To have property oneself is a sure way to learn respect for the property of others;

stealing is the vice of the unowning and the dispossessed.

"A close analysis of most juvenile thefts will show that nearly every thief preserves some measures of regard for the rights of others. The man who would never steal from his neighbours' table will yet defraud a railway company or the income-tax collector without a scruple, and steal a notepaper from his club or his hotel without a qualm The child will steal a pencil from his teacher who keeps a hundred in a box, when he will never steal it from another child who has only one or two. He will steal a shilling from some subscription fund, as belonging to no person in particular; but would never set a finger on it while it remained the property of some individual owner. Should the butter he is buying for his mother cost a penny less than his mother assumed, he may keep back the change, but he would never take the same amount from a cash-box or a till. There is honour of a kind among most young thieves; and none but the most hardened will defraud a popular school mate, a benevolent uncle, or a poor widow whom they know and respect. Primitive as they are, these ethical discriminations should be sought for, recognised on their merits, and utilised as a foundation upon which a wider sense of responsibility may be built.

" . . . A child dearly loves a bargain; he will respect it, when he will never respect a legal obligation which he cannot comprehend and to which he was

no consenting party. Professor Stanley Hall quotes a diverting illustration of this method from his own successful experience. Summer after summer while he himself was away on holidays, the boys from the neighbourhood raided his orchard. 'The Professor,' said the ringleader, 'has no business with two homes, when he can only use one at a time.' Professor Hall convened the little gang; and told them that they might take the fruits of all the trees but one, provided they would save that one for him. They not only kept their compact loyally but protected his chosen tree, together with the rest of his grounds, from every other intruder

"Truancy and Running Away.—In every case of truancy, and most of all in the more hardened, a full study must be made. The child's health, capacity, and disposition, the intelligence, character, and disciplinary methods of his parents, the facilities, teaching methods and personnel of his school, his companionships and pastimes outside the school and home,—all must be reviewed. With older children more particularly, it is essential to search for some secret instigating factor—the fancied injustice or jealousy, the latent hostility to teacher or parent, as well as the various instincts, interests, or feelings which incidentally derive a satisfaction during these runaway spells. It is particularly helpful to look where the limitations press most severely—whether home or school cramps him in most. At school he may be despised as duffer

or the restless nuisance of his class. If so, he should be removed, either to a different class where his dullness or backwardness will be less apparent and where he will no longer chafe under a growing sense of scorned inferiority, or else to a different school where discipline is freer and teaching methods admit more activity and movement. For the master, the best rule is this: make school life so attractive that the young defaulters actually prefer lessons to truancy, the classroom to the street Out of doors, there may be some play-centre, club or recreation-ground which he may be encouraged to frequent

"*Angry Impulses.*—' Anger should be a great and diffused power in human life, giving it zest and force. It requires for its culture a proper selection of its objects, and careful transformation, but never extermination.' (Stanley Hall: *Adolescence*, Ch. V.)

After all, the very attempt to repress it, as a rule, only stirs up its violence. To be angry with the child because he himself is angry, is to add fuel to his rage ; to punish him is to prolong hostilities ; the child feels that you are visiting his annoyance on him, and sees no reason why, to keep scores even, he should not revenge himself on you for seizing his own revenge with younger children to neglect and ignore the impulse may be the wisest attitude but with older children the instinct must be taken more resolutely in hand. The worst course of all is first to provoke anger by refusing concessions, and

then to give way after anger has been roused. Never should a child imagine that he has only to fly into a passion, frighten his mother and disturb the neighbours, for his smallest caprice to be satisfied. A bad temper is often no more than a bad habit; and, like all other habits, it becomes fixed, because it has served in the past to gain some end, and has been regularly repeated with success. So far as possible, whatever is likely to precipitate a storm should be deftly avoided from beforehand. Anything that heightens physical irritability or weakens nervous control should be sought out and remedied; simple prophylactics, like good food, fresh air and careful measures of hygiene, are often sufficient to make the peevish contented and the boisterous calm. But, once more, the main measure is to supply a wholesome outlet. For anger and pugnacity the best channel is the most instinctive, namely, vigorous bodily reaction. Strenuous games like football, energetic boxing with gloves and athletic exercises of every kind provide loopholes for combative excitement, and at the same time train the impulses of strife and rivalry to keep well within the sporting limits of the game.

"Need for Occupation.—Idleness is the one thing that it is essential to avoid. Emotional children must be kept sedulously busy. The chief enemy of virtue is not vice but laziness. Mechanical drudgery at abstract tasks or hated housework is not real activity for the volatile delinquent. If no interest is kindled, no enthusiasm stirred, the mind closes its eyes, and

droops into a sensuous dreaming. Jerked by a sharp word back to the humdrum once more, it wakes up, not to a love of labour, but to a positive abhorrence for its every-day tasks. Room must be found in the child's life for cultivating each natural proclivity by hard but congenial work. Every portion of his mind, every inmate of that menagerie we call his soul,—each appetite, each passion, each potentiality—must be called out of its cage into the open; hunted down if it be restive; harnessed in a full team, and forced to draw its share. Our common human emotions form the only basis for our worldly life.”*

The greatest need in our schools today is a sound and satisfactory scheme of emotional training, which will result in the creation of balanced minds in healthy bodies. Teachers will have to shed most of their old and time-worn ideas and practices, develop a new attitude towards their pupils and, in matters of discipline and moral training, believe, with Professor Burt, that “as virtue should be its own reward, so vice should be left to bring its own punishment; for everywhere the ultimate aim must be to produce a self-governing creature, not a creature who needs always to be governed by others The psychologist, the teacher, the harassed parent, know too well that moral perfection is no inmate gift but a hard and difficult acquirement. The perfect child has still to be born and bred.”

* Burt : *The Young Delinquent*. Ch. X.

CHAPTER IX

SCHOOL EQUIPMENT AND OFFICE

General Principles.—In Chapter IV broad hints have been given for a proper distribution of responsibility in the management of different types of school equipment among the staff. It cannot be too strongly emphasized that the smooth running of the school machinery depends very largely on a sound organisation of its material equipment, without which it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to carry on the work of teaching from day to day satisfactorily, and on a sincere co-operation between office and the teaching staff, all being guided by the sole object of helping the whole school to run as one single although complicated machine. This is exactly what is meant by the term organisation. A school may possess the largest possible quantity of books, apparatus and other equipment and yet there may be confusion in their supply at the proper time to a needy class, while another school may have only a limited stock of material equipment and yet through proper organisation may be able to provide for its supply and use in such an intelligent manner that teaching and various educational activities would be proceeding almost with a clock-like precision.

In every subject and in connection with every school activity it is necessary to have an adequate supply of apparatus and equipment. The headmaster may not be in a position to know the exact nature, quantity and variety of material equipment necessary for the teaching of any particular subject; the teacher in charge of that subject is the right person to have this knowledge. Hence the first consideration which should guide the headmaster is to have a timely consultation with the teacher or teachers concerned for a sufficient supply of the material aids necessary for the teaching of that particular subject. But it is not enough to have such supply of material only, for the next step is to arrange all this material in the most satisfactory manner. Here again the teacher's technical knowledge comes to his aid, for it is he who can arrange the material with reference to the needs of the various classes. He is also to keep in view the arrangement of the prescribed syllabuses from term to term and have his material handy in such a manner that the needs of the subject-matter for each term are met properly by means of a systematic supply of the material aid necessary for the classes.

Although the correct use of all such aids is not a part of school management but really a part of the subject of class teaching, a general remark or two are necessary to impress the importance of the correct use of all material aids for the purpose of successful

instruction. It is a common failing with teachers that they arrange apparatus and illustrative material before the class in such a manner that they serve more as so many different forms of distraction rather than as real aids to instruction. It may be an interesting, and even imposing, sight to have a large number of articles arranged on the demonstration table in a science lesson, or a large number of maps, pictures and globes displayed on the teacher's table and on the walls of the geography classroom, but from the point of view of the practical teacher and also of commonsense it is clear that all the material facing the class can never be used at the same time, with the result that the particular aid, which is necessary to make a particular portion of the lesson clear to the pupils, is not observed or attended to with the same amount of concentration by the pupils who find so many attractive and interesting articles displayed all around them. This is the main reason why teachers are expected to use only that aid which is necessary for the time being and remove it before bringing in any other. The method and habit of using an illustrative aid correctly is an art which every teacher should try to acquire.

As usually the same subject is taught to a number of classes at the same time it is inevitable that the material equipment necessary for a certain subject will have to be taken from the central stock to different places at the same time during the day. Naturally it is the responsibility of every teacher using such

material to see that it is returned to the central stock after use. It is not sufficient or desirable to allow any and every pupil in the beginning of a lesson to run to the geography room for a map or a picture and at the end of the lesson to let such material remain in the classroom or even be returned by any pupil. The teacher should consider it imperative that he allots the responsibility for the bringing and also for the return of material to particular boys on particular days so that in the event of misplacement, damage or loss the responsibility can be located. Although the stock register remains in charge of a particular teacher it cannot be made possible for him to maintain it correctly from the beginning of the session till the end unless all the teachers making use of this particular material co-operate properly in its maintenance in proper form and this co-operation becomes a very simple affair if daily care is exercised by teachers in the proper return of the material issued from the stock. The headmaster has to see that there is periodical checking of the whole material and, if it is not possible in particular cases, he must get the checking done at least once in a session just after the annual promotion examination. It is about this time that care is to be taken not only to find out the loss but also to prepare lists of articles needing repair, replacement and rejection. If at the end of a session this principle is observed carefully there would be no difficulty in supplying the missing material during the

summer vacation so that along with the opening of schools after the vacation the work can start in right earnest and without waiting for the supply of any particular article.

Thus, it is clear that both the headmaster and his staff have to show a serious and sensible attitude towards the maintenance of stock registers. It is a remarkable principle in Government departments that *no article can be lost*. It means that somebody must be made responsible for every article and it will be his duty to take care of all material placed in his charge. As a matter of course all articles are liable to damage in fair use in which case it can be replaced by a fresh supply, but there is no justification for the loss of any article. It is inevitable that the damaged or unserviceable stock should be collected once every year and auctioned, if it can bring any monetary return or totally destroyed. It is a common sight to find schools with a large quantity of unserviceable material occupying space in the almirahs which should better be occupied by new and up-to-date material. Old books, partly damaged apparatus, out-of-date maps and pictures and collections of unserviceable material at all sorts of places indicate that the headmaster and the staff of that school are careless of their duty and are not conscious of their primary responsibility in providing the material necessary for the proper teaching of syllabuses which are revised and brought up-to-date year after year.

The Library.—One of the most common signs of backwardness in educational matters is the maintenance of libraries which are hardly up-to-date and the organisation of which shows that our ideas regarding the maintenance and use of a library are also out-of-date. The whole teaching profession is so obsessed with the importance of prescribed books that hardly any sensible use is made of other books and periodicals from the bottom to the top of the whole school organisation. In many schools there are class libraries but the teachers-in-charge of these libraries consider their charge as more of an unwelcome task than as a pleasant occupation in which the teacher and the pupil should take an intimate part. It is the function of class libraries to stimulate interest in general reading and to create and strengthen what may be called the 'reading habit' in children from the earliest stages. For this purpose it is necessary to allow the children very early to play with books, turn over their pages aimlessly to start with and in other ways remain in contact with them in their own natural way until they begin to feel interest in particular books and it may be at particular places only. Here is the real starting point of their intellectual evolution and, once this interest has been created, the teacher can very easily keep it up by supplying fresh material which can gradually grow in volume and complexity. But all teachers cannot do it because all pupils will not have similar tastes and interests and very frequently a large

number of them would be found to have no interest in literary things. The great need for meeting the variety of requirements even in the same class constitutes an important task which will demand from the teacher an unlimited fund of patience and tact. He may also have to exercise persuasion and frequently to make use of the spirit of competition in order to form the reading habit in the pupils and it is essential for him to know not only the tastes and aptitudes of all his pupils but also to be familiar with the contents of every book contained in the class library. He can easily test the success or failure of his library by having a look at his issue register at the end of every term. The number of books issued to each pupil would indicate how far he has been successful in his task. Of course it is implied that the children have been actually reading these books.

The maintenance of the catalogue for each class library is a comparatively simple affair but it does not mean that the various class libraries taken together constitute the school library. There may be any number of almirahs set apart for the use of various classes; there will still be need for having a central school library of which the principal contents would be reference books and periodicals. The headmaster should have a suitable teacher appointed as a librarian for the central library from which the routine type of books will not be issued to the students. It is a fact unfortunate but true that hardly any school teaches

its scholars the art of using reference books and dictionaries and, as regards magazines and periodicals, it is equally unfortunately true that no attempt is made to train pupils in the art of using their back numbers for indexing various papers on similar subjects with particular aims in view. If books have their own function in supplying study material in an arranged form they are likely to grow out-of-date very soon and the only method by which the information imparted through books can be kept up-to-date is by making supplementary use of magazines and periodicals. Every teacher can do this very well provided he is getting magazines bound in six-monthly or yearly volumes and not stowing them away in almirahs seldom to be used afterwards. It should become a regular function of a school librarian to teach the boys how to collect supplementary reading material on different subjects of study from the bound volumes of journals and periodicals so that their reading habit will be supplemented by the still more necessary habit of deliberately keeping abreast of the times in all departments of knowledge.

It is unnecessary to write at length on the need of maintaining the issue registers correctly but a word is necessary for making use of the issue registers for the purpose of noting the progress of individual pupils in connection with their habits of reading and study. Individual written examinations may have their own story to tell but the library issue registers

also indicate in no uncertain terms which way the individual pupils are progressing in intellectual and literary matters and in what directions their tastes and interests are developing. If there is a school magazine published towards the end of the session it must contain a note from the school librarian on his study of the library issue registers.

It is also necessary to say something about the correct use of magazines and journals for the purpose of stimulating children's interest in printed reading matter. In the junior classes it is very necessary to have a plentiful supply of illustrated magazines and newspapers containing items which stir up and nourish children's interests particularly and it is the function of the class librarian, if not of all teachers, to see that children get an opportunity of turning over and scanning the pages of such publications, the objects being (*a*) to enrich the fund of information of each child, (*b*) to enlarge the sphere of their interests, and (*c*) to serve as a necessary supplement to the instruction imparted in the classroom. It will be found that the result of this sort of study of journals will be a spontaneous desire on the part of many children to have a journal of their own. A sensible headmaster will naturally take steps to satisfy this desire by encouraging the establishment of manuscript magazines for different groups of classes and perhaps one magazine to be issued in print at least once, if not twice, a year for the whole school. It is not necessary that

the magazine should contain only the traditional contents like articles, stories and poems, for, with a little sensible guidance and imagination exercised by teachers, children having different aptitudes and tastes can easily be trained to draw pictures, charts, maps and other forms of illustrative material, including designs for the cover and also for particular objects in the inside of magazines, and, in various ways which only experience can suggest, evolve such a magazine into an emblem of what the whole body of school children are being trained into. Unless hobbies and originality are very well encouraged and scope for variety allowed school magazines are sure to degenerate into mere exercise books with no life or light about them. Teachers of different languages should make it a point to see that through such magazines teaching and composition serve as natural complements of each other.

Science Equipment.—In most schools it is not possible to have separate arrangements for stocking the equipment for the teaching of science, nature study and hygiene, nor is it necessary. It seems to be a sound reform of modern times that the old and narrow conception of science consisting of Physics and Chemistry only is gradually yielding place to the new subject of General Science purporting to cover the elements not only of Physics and Chemistry but also Botany, Zoology, Physiology, Hygiene and Physiography; in short, all those elements of natural

science which surround and concern man in connection with his day-to-day life and activity. The old-fashioned teacher accustomed to thinking in terms of prescribed syllabuses in Physics and Chemistry has to change his whole outlook towards this important subject and conceive of it as a powerful instrument for developing the practical and utilitarian sides of the children through an intelligent interest in all that is happening around them. Under the new conditions it is quite likely that Physics and Chemistry will assume a separate place while the primary function for the proper training of the children will be assumed by Physiology and Hygiene with their irresistible demand for the formation of correct personal habits and by plant life and animal life with their intimate connection with the life of man. The nature study garden is not merely meant to serve as a means of supplying illustrative material for a scientific teaching of Botany nor are the school *aquaria* and *vivaria* to be supposed as being places only for the study of the development of particular animals. Much of the work can be done by an observation of plants and animals living in their natural homes outside the school and yet for certain technical purposes they have to be reared at school frequently for short periods.

With the requirements of such a subject clear in the minds of the teachers it should not be difficult to organise the material equipment of the science department in the most convenient manner. The

most common system is to classify the material according to subjects but a necessary supplement would be to classify the stock meant for each subject in a seasonal form also and corresponding to the detailed syllabus prepared for each term. It is not always a sound plan to have only one man in charge of the whole laboratory. The headmaster should take care to see that every teacher in the school is in charge of some sort of material so that no one can feel that he is not responsible for the proper up-keep of some kind of school equipment. And in each case the teacher in charge of stock should have his own stock register which would be maintained according to rules and carefully checked every year so that no unserviceable material may collect and the supply always kept up-to-date. It is only a question of detail to be attended to by the teacher-in-charge that he indicates in some sensible manner to the casual observer how he has arranged and organised his stock. For this purpose a convenient method is to have two registers, one showing the articles purchased date-wise year after year and the other giving a list of the articles in the same order in which they are arranged in the various almirahs and cupboards in the science departments. A copy of the various sections of the second register may be hung on each almirah and cupboard so that any article can be found without loss of time.

It is absolutely essential for the satisfactory up-keep of the science laboratory that broken and

otherwise unserviceable articles are replaced every year and no dirt allowed to accumulate on any article anywhere. All the apparatus issued daily for use should at the end of the day be cleaned and restored to their places in the almirahts so that, except in rare cases when any particular apparatus is to be left standing on the demonstration or laboratory tables, nothing is allowed to remain on these tables at the end of the day. The science master should never spare the laboratory bearer or himself in this connection. It is also necessary to add here that the animals kept in captivity either in cages or *vivaria* or living in the *aquaria* should be taken care of daily, the most important principle being that the animals must not live in unhygienic surroundings and must have an adequate supply of food and water.

Geography and History.—In connection with the material equipment of these subjects the remarks made about the science laboratory hold good. But a word is necessary regarding the maintenance and use of maps, charts and pictures. It is a common sight in Indian schools to see that old and out-of-date and frequently damaged articles are used for illustrating the lessons in these two important subjects, thus indicating a poverty of outlook on the part of the headmaster and teachers. There is always some amount of money set apart for meeting the recurring expenditure on the material equipment of a school and there is no reason why all the subjects should not profit by a proportionate distribution

of this money. All out-of-date maps should simply be thrown away. Damaged or discoloured illustrations never have the same appeal to the children as new and colourful ones and the teacher, if he has sympathy, tact and imagination, can always devise ways and means of keeping his stock of illustrations fairly up-to-date. The children's natural interests and inclinations can always lead to the maintenance of suitable albums containing cuttings from newspapers and journals and such albums can always serve as helpful complements to the school stock of purchased pictures and illustrations. Then, there is the question of creative activity which can always be made use of by a systematic planning of that section of school work which is concerned with the preparation of charts and maps by the pupils themselves. It is no use getting the children to draw maps and charts or prepare or collect pictures, if these are kept only inside the exercise books of the children themselves. A more effective educational device is to have periodical displays of all children's work. Such exhibitions will help in the selection of the best productions for the purpose of showing them on the walls of the classrooms.

Drawing, Hand Work and other Practical Subjects.
—The remarks about the purchase, organisation and use of the material necessary for the science subjects and geography hold good for all practical subjects, while the suggestions for using the children's own productions

for further encouraging them in their creative activities are particularly true for those subjects in which the children's work possesses some sort of utility either in the form of classroom or home decoration or use in actual life. There is no reason why a beautiful picture drawn by a child should not be allowed to be taken home to be preserved there just as there is no justification for preventing a child from taking his wooden model home for use. The headmaster and teachers should have real sympathy with the demands of evolving nature inside the child and adopt all sorts of devices for promoting this evolution, always remembering that both the school and the home have to serve as an inter-connected medium for helping in the training of the children. The emotional and æsthetic side of child nature has seldom received adequate attention in our schools and it is high time that teachers begin to think seriously about the implications and importance of the creative tendencies inherent in children and bring about a better synthesis between the growing needs of the children and the instruments of training available for use by teachers. It is a normal reaction to the old and traditional system so long followed in our schools that the basic activity forming the central theme of the Wardha Scheme of education is coming to receive such prominent attention and it lies with the teachers to understand fully their duty and responsibility. Books should now be relegated to their proper places in the

whole scheme of education and activity must be allowed to come into its own.

School Furniture.—With teachers made responsible for the material equipment necessary for the teaching of the various subjects it is unavoidable that office staff should be made responsible for the furniture of the school. It will lie with the headmaster to make the distribution of responsibility between the head clerk and his assistants, if any, but it will perhaps be the most satisfactory plan to have the head clerk in charge of the stock register for school furniture. He should be able to tell at a very short notice which articles are contained in particular rooms or halls or corridors, what the total number of any particular article in the school is, how many are damaged or repairable and so on. The office staff will also have to remember the number and nature of books or charts displayed on the walls of the various rooms and they, through the menial staff, will have to shoulder the responsibility of keeping the floors, walls, windows and ventilators in the classes properly cleaned. The danger of dirt accumulating anywhere in any building or room can hardly be overemphasized and the scrupulousness with which efforts are made to eliminate dust should be considered as the main index of the attitude of the school staff towards life in general and the welfare of the children in particular. It is necessary to point out that the method of sweeping the rooms with Indian brooms (*jharu*), and striking articles of

furniture with the dusters in order to clean them and of rubbing blackboards with dry dusters are all unsatisfactory, if not positively risky, methods which scatter dust rather than remove it. Means should be adopted to have better and more satisfactory methods of collecting the dust without scattering it about and then taking it out to be deposited or buried in the right manner. In order to achieve this object persistent vigilance will have to be exercised over the work of the menial staff whose habits cannot be changed very easily.

A word seems necessary regarding the handling of chairs, stools and desks by teachers and pupils alike. It is perhaps a normal affair with the latter, in their exuberance of activity and vitality, to be using their seats and desks rather roughly, but it lies with the teachers to teach their pupils respect for property in general by gradually correcting the habit of treating with scant respect all kinds of school property. It is a most unsightly thing to find the top of desks disfigured with etchings and scratchings and discoloured by patches of ink. It is a clear indication that the headmaster and his staff do not take care to have the tops of desks properly cleaned and renewed before the commencement of school session every year. The argument regarding expenditure can easily be met by requiring that all this should be done by the pupils themselves. If all the members of a certain school are required to clean their desks and seats once every

year, if not more frequently, it will be found that the evil will disappear very quickly and the culprits, if any, remaining after this important social training, can be discovered and brought to book very easily. One of the finest methods of teaching social habits is to require the class as a whole to be in charge of the room with all its equipment.

Games Material.—It is hardly necessary to say anything special about maintaining the stock register of games material, for this register should be maintained exactly in the same way as other stock registers. But the real difficulty which the games teacher has to face is that of devising a satisfactory method of issuing and receiving back the different types of material required for games every day. If the school adopts a policy of compulsory games in the afternoon it will hardly be possible to supply all needs by sticking to only one or two games every day. If all the children attending the playground have to be properly trained in games including physical exercises and such activities as scouting, junior red cross, first aid, and the different forms of play, it is necessary for the headmaster not to rely exclusively on one man, namely, the games superintendent, but to devise a coordinated programme of all such activities as has already been explained in Chapter IV, making it clear that different teachers in charge of different activities have to supply and use material exactly in the same way as they would make use of illustrative material while teaching a class.

But there is one fundamental difference between class-room instruction and the practice of open-air games and activities, for, while the former necessarily is to be dominated by the teacher, the latter must be made the chief means of training children in responsibility and cooperative work by means of group activity. No suggestion can be made as a hard and fast rule to be followed in every school. At first as many different pupils as possible should be allowed opportunities for captaining, and, in other ways, leading, various groups in different games and activities and gradually the groups themselves should get organised for different purposes under different children who naturally acquire positions of confidence and leadership in their respective activities. It is these leaders of school society whose services have to be used by the headmaster and his staff in developing the physical side of the school.

The issue of the material, its distribution and use during the activities, the proper return of articles at the end of the games to the central stock, keeping a record of damages and breakages, proper arrangement of material in the scouting room and other details can easily be left to the leaders and captains themselves who will be found to respond to the trustful attitude of the teacher in a most admirable manner. It will certainly be a proud day for any school if it can show to the outside observer that the afternoon games and activities of different groups of children

are managed by themselves in a spontaneous and organised manner without needing anything but casual guidance from the teaching staff. Of course the teachers are there to impart such essential elements of training as following prescribed rules in various games, proper technical coordination and cooperation among the various members of a team in order to achieve the best possible result, methods of maintaining progress charts for individual children as well for groups in different activities and so on. It is not necessary to dilate on this point at great length for the essential ideas in connection with the games and physical training have already been explained in Chapter VI.

The Museum.—It is high time that the school authorities should think seriously about evolving a school museum in the true sense of the term. There are all sorts of museums in almost every institution but a look at their contents invariably shows that the real purpose of the school museum is hardly realised in any way. Teachers must remember that the school museum is fundamentally different from a public museum, for, while the latter must serve as a vast store-house of reference material in connection with all the different subjects of human interest, the former must be conceived of being a chief means of showing what scholars are capable of doing in connection with the different aspects of school work. The fact is that a single school museum will never serve its purpose.

It will be necessary to have one central museum for the whole school with the definite object of displaying material of a more or less permanent nature, while there should be subject museums the contents of which will be periodically renewed in order to keep pace with the evolution of the children's training.

For example, the geography room will not only contain purchased maps, charts, pictures and different kinds of apparatus but also the drawings of different classes selected out of the work generally done by them from term to term. There may not be scope for selection where class-room work is concerned except that very bad productions will not be displayed on the walls of the geography room but at the end of the year it will be easily possible to select half-a-dozen specimens of children's work of a specially meritorious character which the teacher should like to be included in the contents of the general museum. Similarly, the science master, the manual training teacher, the drawing master,—in fact teachers of all subjects, should be able to make special selection of specimens for adding to the central museum out of the year's work of the children. Even the junior classes have very important contributions to make towards the central school museum, for good specimens of handwriting, poems and compositions showing brilliant flashes of originality and expression, or any other form of children's work showing special features, can easily find a prominent place in the central stock of school

collections. In short, it should be the lookout of the headmaster to discover originality and genius in children in connection with every form of class work and, as soon as he finds it, he should take steps to encourage and develop it in as many different ways as possible. And what better way can there be to achieve this object than to let the children have the most natural form of encouragement, viz., *display*, which directly or indirectly brings the satisfaction of approval and praise?

Thus, there are two types of museums which have to grow in the school. First, the different subject museums, which will be changing from term to term and which, therefore, cannot admit of the introduction of any set form of stock book. These subject museums may not have stock registers but they may have suitable lists prepared by the pupils themselves for the guidance of observers or visitors. But the central school museum which is of a more or less permanent character must have its own stock register or catalogue. As already explained, its principal contents will be selected specimens from children's work in connection with their activity in the school, literary or non-literary. It does not mean that there should not be other forms of collection in this museum. In connection with the teaching of different subjects, and particularly literature, history, geography and elementary science, it will be necessary to make collections of raw material and available articles which will be used year after year

for elaborating different lessons. Some of this will have to be purchased or procured from far and near; others will have to be collected from the neighbourhood of the school or the city in which it is situated. As far as possible the local industries should be drawn upon to provide this sort of material and there will be no dearth of interest and variety in the specimens if children's hobbies are encouraged and stimulated in the school. All the material selected out of such collections should be entered properly in the stock register in a duly classified form. If the two-fold nature of school museum just referred to is borne in mind there will be no difficulty on the part of the school authorities to have the museum maintained and looked after in a satisfactory manner.

There is one important point which cannot be impressed too much in this connection, *viz.*, the presentation of school progress in its different aspects in a comparative form for the information and guidance of teachers and for the eyes of visitors. At present the method that is adopted in our schools for recording the progress of scholars is neither satisfactory nor impressive for reasons discussed in a previous chapter. The progress of scholars in different subjects as recorded by means of marks, their physical development as indicated by the charts showing height, weight and other similar measurements, the number of books issued from the class and school libraries to individual children, the results of promotion examinations presented in a comparative

form for 8 or 10 years or more, the results of games and matches played against other institutions during the whole term or year for a number of years taken together, and all such other activities presented in a comparative form either by means of charts or graphs should always be compiled and the final statements displayed prominently on the walls of the museum. The number and variety of data, numerical or otherwise, available in every school in connection with different phases of its life and work, make it imperative that the headmaster and his staff should take steps to record them in a comparative form. This matter will be discussed more fully in the last chapter but it should be remembered that such comparative statements are necessary if the school wants to create for itself a place in the educational scheme of the province by the side of similar other institutions. In these progressive times no school can afford to do without all those statistical devices which are adopted by organisations anxious to compare themselves favourably with others of their kind.

The stock register will be maintained in the same way as others but the teacher in charge of the museum should remember that there is a fundamental difference between his museum and other stocks maintained in the school. As the museum is sure to contain preserved material both from animal and plant life and a large quantity of paper, wood and card-board articles it is liable to damage through the actions of weather

and insects to a larger extent than the articles contained in the geography room or the science laboratory. Consequently, the cleaning and re-arrangement of the material contained in the museum should be done more frequently. Perhaps the rule that the museum should be overhauled at the end of every term would be found quite satisfactory. The process of cleaning should include not only taking out and dusting all the articles and cleaning of the inside of the various cupboards, almirahs and containers but also exposing them to the sun and to the action of suitable disinfectants.

Office.—Although the organisation of the office falls outside the jurisdiction of the teachers themselves the headmaster cannot be absolved from the responsibility of proper management of the inside of his office. The clerk and the accountant are supposed to be experts in their job but it cannot be over-emphasized that the system already in vogue is always open to simplification and improvement. Arrangements of the files and registers, maintenance of accounts in the proper form, prompt receipt and despatch of correspondence, and, above all, the maintenance of proper relations between the office and teaching staff on the one hand and the office and menial staff on the other are matters which the headmaster can never leave to the head clerk alone. Distribution of work and responsibility should be done by him in person and in writing, and the supervision of the work of the office and menial staff after the distribution has

been made is one of his most important duties. It does not mean that he would be frequently interfering with anybody's work, for a business-like headmaster knows very well that a look from him will work wonders where continuous threats, criticisms and chastisement can never succeed. If he maintains human relations with everybody making it clear that no one is expected to do more than the allotted work and that every one is expected to work at the highest pitch of efficiency, if he does not use the staff for private purposes, in short, if he lets the whole school to grow into a human institution in which every one feels that he has his own place of confidence and responsibility, there will hardly be any difficulty at any stage. There will certainly be difficulty if he relaxes his supervision over the menial staff, for it is an unfortunate fact that such staff in the present conditions do not work satisfactorily. Whatever the reason may be the headmaster has to face the realities of the situation and take as much work as possible out of the menials for the successful running of the school machinery. He will have to guard particularly against the possibility of menial staff being utilised for private purposes by office staff on the one hand and by well-to-do and indulgent students on the other. It is difficult to enumerate all the possible situations that may arise in a school in this respect but the careful and watchful headmaster will be able to anticipate many undesirable situations and guard against them.

One of the most frequent cases of friction in school is the absence of proper understanding of relations between the clerical and the teaching staff. Weak headmasters generally rely on their favourite assistant masters and on the head clerk for the routine work of the school with the result that these two in alliance often ignore the rest of the teaching staff. While it is impossible for the clerical staff to attend to all teachers exactly in the same way, especially when some of them act as if the office staff were their subordinates, it is equally true that the clerks often fall into the temptation of neglecting, if not positively treating with contempt, many of the teachers, especially if they happen to be indifferently treated by the headmaster. If the headmaster himself has not evolved into a tactful social being and lacks the essential qualities of leadership it will be impossible for him to manage such a situation. But if he knows the art of dealing with groups of human beings having different temperaments, likes and dislikes, if he knows how to smile and frown even at his favourites and if he makes it a point to treat every human being with respect and consideration it will be very easy for him to bring about an atmosphere in the school in which the principle of "live and let live" will be automatically followed by the teaching as well as office staff. And, above all, if the school follows the method of training children as social beings in the manner suggested in the previous chapters it is doubtful if any

unpleasant or undesirable relations will ever grow up between any of the teachers or between clerks and teachers at any time.

CHAPTER X

HOSTEL LIFE

The Hostel as a Home.—In India the school hostel is generally supposed to be meant for those who come from outside the city and have no place where they can live in. This meagre and old-fashioned idea is to be totally discarded if school children have to be trained in social habits and in the methods and limitations of corporate living. The work of the school cannot completely succeed unless it possesses a hostel in which children will be required to live by their parents and guardians as a place where happy and well-regulated surroundings help in the development of the children's daily life and character much more effectively than in their respective homes.

The hostel must be conceived of being both like and unlike the children's homes, for, while it will serve not only to provide the daily essentials of human life like food, shelter and general attention to welfare, it is sure to be unlike an ordinary home inasmuch as it will have to cater to the children of different ages and of different communities at the same time in such a manner and to such an extent as no ordinary home can possibly be called upon to do. From this point of view the hostel superintendent's duty is a most onerous and responsible one. Children

coming from different places and belonging to different strata of society have to be gradually helped in adjusting themselves to a particular kind of life and gradually taught to live in such a manner that, while the necessary differences of individual life are carefully allowed for, a common and ideal form of 'community life grows up which will evolve children into the desirable type of social human beings. It is no easy task for the superintendent to begin this form of social training by allowing the original home habits of the children to be the starting point of a course of life and training which ultimately assumes a more or less uniform character having not only an immediate effect on the mental outlook of the children themselves but also carrying over into their home life as well as after life. Understanding, tact, infinite patience and a clear perception of the ultimate objective should characterize all actions of the superintendent who will have to exercise great discretion and firmness in his dealings with guardians who may in their ignorance and intolerance resent even the most reasonable interference in the traditional habits of their children. No hard and fast rules can be prescribed for the guidance of the superintendent in connection with his dealings with the children's parents, but, if his objective is clear, he will easily know what to do in individual cases. There will hardly be any difficulty if there is a full understanding between the superintendent and the head of the institution, both of whom

should be guided by the same motive, *viz.*, to provide not merely a sort of home for the inmates of the hostel but really to make it an ideal home and epitome of the type of life which the various communities are expected to live in intimate contact with one another in future.

Some essential principles.—Subject to modification according to local needs, the following principles will be found to cover the various requirements :—

(1) *Happy and Healthy Surroundings.*—Not only the inside of the various rooms and dormitories but also the outside verandahs and courtyards, the kitchens and lavatories, the outside of the hostel including the drains, the common room and the hostel playground, if any,—in fact the whole of the hostel should be maintained in a neat, happy and healthy condition, for which it will be found that reliance on the menial staff will be hardly satisfactory. It is well known that homes in which the family members do not take an active share for their maintenance in proper form prove hardly satisfactory or happy, and the same principle is true for the hostel, too. The duty of keeping everything clean will have to be apportioned between menial staff and groups of students and the superintendent will have to see that each party does the allotted duty regularly and in the proper spirit. There may be grumbling and resentment in the beginning, but, if the habit is enforced firmly and patiently, it will be found that better sense prevails in

the long run and children begin to take a real pleasure, and sometimes vie with one another, in the maintenance of their rooms and surroundings as best as is possible in the circumstances. The proverb "cleanliness is godliness" is a truth which only practice can enable human beings to realise and it has been found that children realise it much more quickly than adults, who are frequently influenced by doubtful notions of prestige and responsibility.

There are bound to be small areas of land available for gardening purposes both inside and outside the hostel building. A little encouragement on the part of the superintendent will lead the children to plan, start and maintain a decent hostel garden which can serve as an important complement to the school work in nature study if care is taken to plant flowers and vegetables not only from the point of view of utility in the kitchen but also from the larger point of view of nature study. But care should be taken to prevent the hostel garden from degenerating into a purely school garden, for, while the latter is guided by more or less academical objectives, the former should have two main objects, namely, beauty and utility.

(2) *Need for Rules.*—In order to regulate daily life and, through anticipation, forestall possible cases of friction, a set of rules must be framed and displayed prominently for the information of the hostellers as well as visitors. Care must be taken to see that all

the inmates of the hostel know the rules and the penalties for their breach. Here, too, the hostel superintendent may have to relax some rules in the beginning for first offences, for all children cannot be expected to conform to new and frequently difficult requirements to which they have never been accustomed. A wise superintendent will take a human view of the matter and gradually train the children to look upon the rules with awe and respect. He will find it a useful subject of an occasional discourse to explain particular rules and to get suggestions for their modification in the light of experience in close consultation with the children themselves, after, of course, they have been followed for a considerable time and the need for modification made out through actual experience.

(3) *Supervision of daily life.*—This principle need only be mentioned, for it is well known that no habits can be formed unless the desirable practices are carried on day after day and month after month patiently and in the right spirit. Knowing the laws of habit formation the hostel superintendent has to see himself that all the children from sunrise to bedtime lead the prescribed round of life in the desired way and gradually get their idiosyncrasies rounded off through insistent activity in the midst of social and happy surroundings and in good company. On working days the prescribed school hours automatically regulate the mornings and evenings, but on holidays

children are apt to run riot into undesirable excess. Now, here again the hostel superintendent should not fall into the temptation of prescribing fixed hours for the students and compel them to feel that the hostel is more like an imprisonment than anything else. If he wants to have holidays regulated properly it will be a very sensible plan to let the boys have perfect freedom so that he may find out which way the interests of particular groups of children lie and then, on the basis of this objective observation, he can easily prepare an outline programme which no one will ever resent. The common temptation of fixing study hours on holidays should be avoided and careful efforts made to provide hours of recreation and entertainment which have their own educative value. Before the superintendent can think of exercising supervision he should satisfy himself that he has provided in a sensible and comprehensive manner not only for study but also for rest and recreation of all hostellers and he would always find it a sound plan to have only outlines of programmes which may need modification from term to term and from year to year.

Far more serious than supervision of the children is the task of looking after the servants and menials who will be found always watching for opportunities to take advantage of, and reap benefit from, the innocence of the children. They will always serve a boy coming from a well-to-do home more eagerly than they would serve a more humble student in the

expectation of some sort of gratification and it will lie with the superintendent to see that service is evenly distributed over all the inmates of the hostel. Shy children are often in need of more help and sympathy for their proper training, while the more aggressive and often spoilt children from well-to-do homes need putting a brake on their expectations if their character is to be properly formed. Both these problems should be kept constantly in view although they would not be very easy to tackle.

Training in Responsibility.—The method of training children in responsibility has been discussed at length in Chapter VIII. It can with slight modifications be applied in the hostels, too. Care of furniture and different kinds of material stock, prescribing and supervising the work of menials, helping one another in games and studies, managing the entertainment and recreational side of hostel life are among the various items through which different children and groups of children can be trained in shouldering individual as well as joint responsibility. A wise superintendent can easily devise schemes by which such training can be imparted, care being taken to avoid providing occasions for the growth of jealousy and undesirable competition. It has been found again and again that haste, impatience and expectations of early results have often spoilt such schemes. As in the case of all other groups of human beings some children with qualities of strength, courageousness and

leadership will receive and imbibe such social training faster and much more effectively than the naturally shy and timid ones, but it does not mean that the latter group also should not have their chance. In any case it is worth while for the superintendent keeping himself in the background as much as possible and letting the children learn how to manage their own affairs themselves and, through a well-regulated scheme of hostel life, gradually get their angularities and unsocial habits rounded off.

Outside Contact.—None of our ordinary hostels can be happy or effective without establishing and maintaining wholesome contact with the homes of their inmates. No hostel can succeed in its purpose without establishing contact in different ways with other hostels in the neighbourhood. In fact, it should be an essential part of the policy of the school, to which the hostel belongs, to maintain a living contact with other educational institutions in the city, and it lies primarily with the headmaster to see that new ideas and new methods are constantly imported from outside so that the students do not get into the habit of living and moving in the same dull and traditional circle.

Functions like debates, competitions (concerned with out-door as well as in-door games), *mushairas* and *kavi-sammelans* are some essential occasions when outsiders should be invited and full occasion provided for the exchange of thoughts between the inmates of

the hostel and the visitors. Occasionally eminent public men or great leaders of thought and society visiting the town should be invited to visit the hostel and talk to its inmates after having delivered organised lectures. The maintenance of inter-hostel relations and wholesome contact with institutions and personalities should be one of the important items of organisation needing special care from the superintendent. It may be remarked that one of the effective but greatly neglected means by which close relationship may be established between teachers and students of the same school is by inviting the former by rotation to visit the hostel and enrich the life of its inmates by talks, lectures and suggestions, generally in an informal and homely way.

Need of Tradition.—It is most unfortunate that Indian schools as well as hostels seldom take care to build up, maintain and cherish a high standard of tradition. The hostel certainly provides a most convenient opportunity to build up such a tradition and it should be one of the primary duties of a superintendent to see that the tradition of his hostel is clearly visible, without being constantly paraded, in the dress, habits and manners of the inmates. A well-regulated life evinced by the behaviour of the children,—neat but inexpensive dress, erect bearing, courteous and yet straightforward and fearless ways of addressing others, a keen and living interest intelligently displayed by the children in their surroundings, a natural desire to

be of service to the needy,—all these are among the qualities which not only attract attention and exact admiration but also raise the institution in public esteem. The hostel superintendent should consider it a sure sign of success of all his efforts to train children properly that they are always distinguishable by their dress and manners wherever they happen to be. It should be remembered that it is not enough to have a uniformity of dress and conduct built up in any one year; it will need constant care and attention on his part to be able to keep up the continuity of the tradition term after term and year after year. But it should not be difficult, for the school hostel will never get absolutely emptied of all children and it will always be possible to get new ones replacing those who leave at the end of a year to be influenced by those who stay on.

One of the methods by which continuity of tradition can be easily maintained is by having a manuscript magazine. This magazine may be issued every month but, if it is not possible to do so, one issue at the end of each quarter should be considered absolutely essential. The contents of the manuscript magazine will show the manner in which the tradition has been imbibed by the children. Another method by which the process is continued is through pictures and mottos displayed on the walls. This is a very good method of training, provided the pictures, mottos and other hangings on the walls are periodically scrutinised, renewed or replaced so as to follow the

principle of adaptation and up-to-dateness, so essential for maintaining human life at a certain standard of efficiency and effectiveness.

Duties of the Headmaster.—Although the hostel is in charge of the superintendent it does not mean that the headmaster has no duties to perform in this connection. He cannot absolve himself from the ultimate responsibility vested in him for the welfare of the children, and, while he gets things done through the superintendent, he has to pay regular visits to the hostel and allow the children to have the benefit of his opinions and suggestions. It will not do for him to be tempted to issue instructions or give advice from a distance; he must personally see how the children are forming habits of neatness and decent living, how they are being fed and exercised, how far the facilities provided in the hostel are really helping them in their growth and development. The mechanical and routine types of duties which are generally performed by headmasters are all right in their own way but unless they are followed by a real human contact, personal, genuine and intimate, between the headmaster and the hostellers, it cannot be said that the school is guided by the principle "the hostel as an ideal home."

CHAPTER XI

OUTSIDE RELATIONS AND SPECIAL FUNCTIONS

Need for Contact with the Community.—A modern school must develop a life which should have a real and vital contact with the general life of the community. Apart from the need of correlating the school subjects and their teaching with the various phases of actual life, there is at present a growing need for increasing the points of contact of the life of scholars with the life at home and with the community at large. Our schools live a more or less insular life which does not allow them to become an essential part of community life. The general public, following an out-of-date tradition, seem to think that the school is a place where their children have merely to learn the art of passing examinations, while the growing conception of education all over the world is inevitably leading to the conception of the school as a place where not only the life of the community at large will have to be lived in miniature but also as a place where reformation of society in various directions has to start. Hygiene and physical training as well as the various practical arts and crafts are among the subjects which make it inevitable that their practical applications have to lie not in the school only but in the life of the community at large.

Children cannot live according to the modern hygienic principles only at school and it is quite likely that if they have to practise these rules at home the home life will be considerably disturbed. Similarly, if the practical arts and crafts have to mean anything, children acquiring a knowledge of them will be led by natural tendencies to practise them at home and also to observe their application in shops, workshops and factories all over the town. In a general way it may be said that the larger conception of education which has come to us makes it inevitable that there should arise a new but vital understanding between the school authorities on the one hand and the public on the other in the matter of practical application of the knowledge and abilities acquired at school in the actual life of the children.

Thus, the problem of parental cooperation as well as public cooperation has to be solved satisfactorily by the school authorities who must have a comprehensive programme for bringing about such cooperation and maintaining it as an essential part of their school organisation.

Parental Cooperation.—The question of parental cooperation as a special problem should not arise, for, if the schools do their duties towards children satisfactorily, such cooperation would be forthcoming as a matter of course. It is almost begging a question to say that parents should cooperate with the school authorities, for the very fact that they send their

children to school presupposes that they have confidence in these institutions and hence are always prepared to help and maintain them.

But a long tradition gradually tending towards mechanical methods and unsatisfactory results has produced a state of affairs in which parents expect the school merely to train children to pass certain examinations. The responsibility for this unhappy state of affairs has to be shared equally by the school and the parent, for examination passing can never be conceived of as being the sole or even the chief aim of education. The attitude of the parents is excusable because they have neither the training nor the time and inclination to understand that education is a living and growing process requiring change and adaptation in the best interests of the children according to the rules of progress. It is teachers whose primary duty lies, along with the training of children directly at school, in spreading the changing conception of education as a process of training which can never be allowed to fall into any fixed type or rut. It is they who have to adopt and follow an aggressive policy of adult education leading imperceptibly on to social reform not certainly directly, but slowly and irresistibly through the training and habit formation of children who are the most natural and appropriate means for the purpose. Education is a process by which the future generation is laid on a sound footing and, if the larger duty of schools is to be performed on a pretty high scale of

values, teachers can never absolve themselves from this responsibility.

The most effective method by which the sympathy and cooperation of parents can be enlisted is by the system of school records. All parents are naturally anxious to see how children are progressing at school and expect the headmaster to submit for their information a periodical report in this matter. At present there is a sort of scholar's progress report form which, with slight modifications here and there, is used by all schools. But it contains mostly the examination marks, which may satisfy the average parent but which cannot be considered adequate or satisfactory from an educational point of view. It is the function of schools to attend to an all-round development of the pupils and from this point of view the terminal examination marks can never satisfactorily indicate how the children are progressing from term to term. It is high time, therefore, that schools should introduce a really comprehensive and satisfactory progress report form, the nature and contents of which have already been suggested in Chapter VII. If this report is periodically sent to parents and if they are required to acknowledge its receipt as well as make some comments and suggestions, if teachers follow up such records by personal visits and discussions on the strong and weak points of individual children, there is no doubt that most parents will begin to feel that something really substantial and useful is being done for their children.

It is needless to say that human considerations once introduced into the school system will automatically receive sympathetic response from parents whenever necessary for the welfare of the school.

Much is said now-a-days about the need and utility of parents' gatherings and guardians' meetings held at school, but experience has shown that such meetings are rarely patronised by parents and guardians. But one must not rush to the hasty conclusion that this is a sure sign that they have no interest in the work of the school. The fact is that schools on account of their present attitude and methods hardly deserve this sort of response on the part of the parents who, as human beings busy with their day-to-day life and guided by a strong commonsense, can easily see that such meetings are more like empty advertisement than anything else. They argue that one or two such meetings held at long intervals do not, and cannot, serve as proof that the school has real human sympathy with their children, and, merely as institutions busy with the sole task of preparing children for examinations in the traditional way, hardly deserve any consideration over and above what they are getting all over the country. A good tone, a noble tradition, aggressive methods and an open sympathy for students are different aspects of the only policy which can succeed in maintaining the proper relation with parents; there is no other method which can succeed in this connection.

Development of Contact with the Community.—The fact is that the methods which a school should adopt to enlist the cooperation of parents and guardians really form part of a larger policy which not only ensures for the school means of help and support at all times but also is as educative as any other means adopted for training children. From its very nature the school population, consisting as it does of children coming from different strata of society and from different communities, all living more or less in the same geographical area, can easily form a centre of community life far more effectively than any other institution. If this can be done it becomes not a question of enlisting public sympathy and cooperation but merely of living its own life in such a manner that outside cooperation would be forthcoming as a matter of course. There is a large variety of ways in which the school can enlarge its insular policy and steadily progress towards forming itself into a real centre from which will radiate different activities and different ideas towards the farthest extremities of social and community life. It cannot be emphasised too much that all its activities have to be spread primarily through the agency of the children, the teacher acting mostly as guide, philosopher and friend. The following devices for developing a wide contact with the community are not exhaustive but only suggestive.

Social Service.—This important aspect of school life has already been discussed to some extent in

a previous chapter in connection with training in responsibility. If there is a regular and intelligent scheme of social service to be rendered by organised bodies of students at times of *melas* and other public functions, if the people at large feel that at times of need human help would be forthcoming to relieve distress and suffering, the school will automatically attract notice and sympathy. But this form of social service rendered outside the school must not come as the first stage in the school policy, for the services thus rendered will not form a permanent part of the nature of the children unless the training started earlier in the school in connection with all those apparently small school problems which require collective effort on the part of the children. Keeping the classrooms and their furniture clean and well-arranged, spontaneous attention paid by the students towards such matters as scribbling on the walls and accumulation of dirt and scraps of waste paper at all sorts of places, general attention paid to tidiness in the compound and all those matters which were discussed in Chapter II and form an integral part of the activities of the Junior Red Cross Movement, are matters which form the starting point of the training of children in social service, the real spirit of which never ignores all those apparently insignificant matters which directly and indirectly affect the physical and moral welfare of the school population. In short, the attitude of the school authorities towards the

problem of neatness and tidiness is a positive index of their attitude towards social service. It has been well said that the Indian is very neat at home but that his attitude towards social hygiene is very unsatisfactory, for he does not hesitate to dump the dust and dirt collection of his household at the door of his neighbour. If the schools can create the right social sense in their children through an intelligent and sensible scheme of housekeeping at school, the larger problem of social hygiene will be comparatively easy to solve.

Scouting and First Aid.—The children of the world are greatly indebted to Baden Powell for the Boy Scout Movement which imparts perhaps the finest form of general training that can ever be imparted to young human beings. It is most unfortunate that scouting in India has always been conceived as intended for particular occasions only and never utilised to impart *compulsory* general training to the *whole* of the school population. It is not enough to select apparently suitable boys for training as scouts; all children should be given this training exactly as they are given literary training whether they are all suitable for it or not, and the result on the whole is sure to be much better from the educational point of view than what it is at present. If the body and the mind of a child are tackled simultaneously the result is sure to be an increased efficiency which will have a wholesome effect on his studies as well. But teachers as a general rule, having been deprived of this splendid

form of training in their earlier days, have seldom shown the right attitude towards this movement. Compulsory training in Scouting and First Aid and provision of liberal opportunities for carrying out in practice the different forms of training imparted at different stages of scouting should be an integral part of school life and the ultimate result in the form of an all-round improvement in the physique, general behaviour and efficiency of the children will surely lead to an increased appreciation from the public.

While at this a word of caution seems necessary. There is hardly anything in the names of the activities through which this sort of training is to be imparted. In these days when misunderstanding is created over the most insignificant matters school authorities may remember that the training suggested here and imparted steadily and systematically for a number of years is the really important thing. It matters little whether we call the activity Scouting or Junior Red Cross or Social Service or Seva Samiti work; what is important is the whole scheme of training imparted through application in actual life opportunities both inside and outside the school.

Special Functions.—Annual prize distribution, parents' gatherings, lectures and debates, *mushairas* and *kavi-semmelans*, dramatic entertainments provided by different groups of children as an expression of their life and training at school, exhibition of children's own work, are among all those activities whose primary

aim should be to show to the public at large different aspects of life at school. But on all such occasions it will be better and more impressive if teachers gradually recede into the background and boys are allowed to manage all the affairs themselves in a decent way and with a due sense of responsibility. School training should tend towards different forms of self-government, which will be evident if all such public functions are managed mostly if not exclusively by the children. Of course, careful training and supervision will always be necessary, but it will be an impressive evidence of the success of such training and supervision if the groups of children entrusted with different aspects of management on such occasions show a due sense of responsibility and cooperation and manage things with clock-like precision. It cannot be impressed too much on teachers and children that the word *organisation* loses its real significance through frequent interference on the part of the former in the spontaneous activities of the latter in the name of guidance. The spirit of cooperation which is the soul of any organisation has to grow spontaneously from the inside of human nature and, if opportunities are regularly provided for the necessary habits to be formed in this connection,—the habit of displaying qualities of responsibility and leadership in certain children and the habit of loyal cooperation in other children,—the school can safely be taken as satisfactorily doing its duty in this respect.

Use of Leisure and Holidays.—A new but important aspect of the life of our schools is that which is connected with the use of leisure hours and holidays for the larger purpose of education. The usual tendency at present is to concentrate home work on the formal studies, specially those which involve written work, whereas the general principle should be to teach all these thoroughly at school and leave the cultural studies and the pursuit of hobbies for the home, so that taste and refinement may be developed during leisure hours. How unfortunate it is that our schools lack a definite policy of encouragement in such essential matters as Music, Drawing, Painting, Poetry and all those forms of fine art, which, together with interesting and instructive hobbies, come naturally to all children and form an important item of emotional training. In fact, training in the proper use of leisure hours as a permanent part of human life is a sort of fine art in itself and if schools can substantially contribute towards this side of a child's education they would be rendering signal service to the growing generations of the country.

Holidays present a problem which has never been adequately tackled by schools in this country. It may be considered whether children should be allowed to waste their time and drift about during holidays as they do at the present time or schools should adopt a definite policy in this matter. Most holidays in India are of a religious or semi-religious character, involving

a large amount of social activity supplementing some technical religious items. As far as this little religious activity is concerned it may be left to the temple or mosque or church concerned. But there is no reason why the larger social activities involved should not form an integral part of school policy. The social side of *Holi* or *Dewali* or *Id* may be attended to at school under the guidance of teachers and in the presence of parents and guardians much more effectively and impressively than outside and it stands to reason that, if conducted at school, they may easily be reformed in such a manner that everybody can join them in a true spirit of social harmony and mutual understanding,—a thing which cannot be done in the apparently exclusive atmosphere in which such functions are performed in the traditional manner. It has already been suggested that schools can gradually form themselves into centres of social reform and if this ideal is accepted there is no reason why the different festivals should not be celebrated in our educational institutions, not with the object of carrying on the traditional ways and methods but with a deliberate object of developing harmony, good relationships, and intelligent understanding among the various communities and classes of people which are represented through their children in the school. There may be some difficulty in the beginning but, if teachers persist in their efforts and gradually convince the parents and guardians that the ultimate motive is noble

and ennobling, there will be no difficulty in the long run and perhaps the educational institutions of the land will become real centres of the social and cultural life of the community.

Public Entertainments.—While different measures have to be adopted by the school with the two-fold aim of training children and attracting parents to school, there must be a systematic scheme under which all children should be taken out of the school in convenient groups to all those places which can impart interest, instruction and inspiration in different ways. Here again training and supervision are necessary to enable students to profit by participation in public lectures, shows, *melas*, theatres, circuses, cinemas, *dungals* and so on,—functions which can be made sources of enjoyment and inspiration at the same time. It is needless to say that if the groups of children attending these functions work and behave in a decent and disciplined manner they will automatically attract attention and appreciation, and derive the satisfaction naturally resulting therefrom.

The Press.—In these days of propaganda and advertisement there is no reason why children should not be trained in making their school activities known to the outside public. They may easily be trained in the elementary methods of correspondence and journalism by sending items of school news,—the various crying needs of the school, changes in its policy, activities of particular children or groups of

children, special types of local studies during organised excursions and all other matters in which readers may be really interested. Of course all such communications should be properly edited and must not be sent for publication except through the head of the institution. On the other hand, children should be trained to read journals and newspapers wisely and intelligently and thus keep themselves in touch with the latest developments all over the world in their own way.

A Policy of Extra-Curricular Activity.—It is neither desirable nor necessary to discuss in detail all those forms of school activity which can be introduced in our educational system to provide the necessary types of training to pupils belonging to different categories. Enough has already been suggested in this connection. It lies with the schools themselves to take serious steps to shift their emphasis from books to activities and from examinations to school records in order to show how they intend to impart training to pupils and measure their progress from year to year. The recent introduction of the Wardha Scheme in various provinces of India automatically implies that the shifting of the emphasis has already received authoritative assent, but there will be no tangible or useful result unless teachers in a body fully understand the implications of the word *activity* and are genuinely prepared to change their outlook and method for carrying out this new

and difficult experiment. It is hardly possible to meet all the natural requirements of the growing human mind in this vast country with its varied population by adopting merely a few so-called 'basic activities' like spinning and weaving or gardening. Nature abhors monotony and, if the requirements of all types of pupils have to be adequately provided for, it is inevitable that these and other similar activities which are more or less "economic" in their outlook and character should come as a supplement to all those varied forms of 'educational' activities which have been specifically mentioned in this chapter and which are more normally and naturally connected with the budding interests and instincts of the children.

Hence it is absolutely necessary that all schools must have a clear-cut policy of extra-curricular activities to supplement and strengthen the present system of bookish training. All schools need not have the same policy but, while the details of the different activities will differ in different institutions, there will be one common feature traceable throughout the whole educational system of the land,—that the varied and evolving interests of the children in different classes are being nourished and directed through the natural channel of play and activity. It has already been explained why such activities must not be allowed to degenerate into uncontrolled or unguided hooliganism, for, if certain basic habits are to be formed in the children leading on to the formation of character, it

is absolutely essential that all such activities should be properly related and coordinated not only with one another and with the literary subjects prescribed in the curriculum but also with the normal natural impulses, aptitudes, and instincts of the growing children.

If such a policy is clearly enunciated by every school and faithfully and loyally followed by the staff the result is sure to be a regular outflow of well-built, dependable and efficient human material which the country should be able to utilise in its best interests.

CHAPTER XII

EXPERIMENT AND RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS

Backwardness of Our Schools.—Sir J. C. Bose once said:—

“Every living organism in order to maintain its life and growth must be in free communion with all the forces of the universe around it. Further it must not only constantly receive stimulus from without but must also give out something from within and the healthy life of the organism will depend on these twofold activities of inflow and outflow This is equally true of the intellectual life of a nation. When, through narrow conceit, a nation regards itself self-sufficient and cuts itself from the stimulus of the outside world then intellectual decay must inevitably follow. So far as regards the receptive function. Then there is another function in the intellectual life of a nation, *viz.*, that of spontaneous outflow—that ‘going out of its life’ by which the world is enriched. When the nation has lost this power, when it merely receives but cannot give out then its healthy life is over and it sinks to a state of degenerate existence; it is purely parasitic.”

If this criterion is applied to our schools, if notice is taken of the fact that schools seldom meet together to compare methods and results, that even within the

same school teachers seldom exchange thoughts on the subject-matter of their profession, that constant supervision from outside of a mechanical and uninspiring nature has reduced teachers to a state of stagnation, it can easily be seen what kind of life our schools are leading at the present time. While the rich educational literature of Europe and America has never failed to reach the teachers of India they have seldom been encouraged to apply the latest and most suggestive and useful methods and devices inside the school. Whatever the causes of this stagnation and monotony may be, headmasters and teachers have to blame themselves for not being aggressive and enterprising enough in this respect, for they have, through indolence or lack of ambition, generally allowed themselves to remain satisfied with the existing methods and with working and living at best at a low moral level. Somehow or other the marks of examinations have come to be respected as the only instrument of measurement of progress and it is this instrument, worn out and rusted as it has already become, that has been responsible for the backwardness of our teachers and schools. It can confidently be asserted that, while so much time, energy and money is spent over the training of our pupils, the nature of the training has never been subjected to the process of assessment or measurement in a precise and accurate manner. There is no doubt that, while the ordinary schoolmaster of western countries is well versed both in the art of teaching and

in the methods of accurately measuring the products of that teaching, teachers in India are generally ignorant of the latter. Herein lies the chief cause of backwardness of our school system.

Basic Idea of Educational Measurement.—The basic idea of measurement in education is that, if our educational methods bring about any kind of change in the children, this change must be measurable mathematically. Methods and materials of instruction can hardly be worth anything until their effect on the pupils is measurable. It does not matter whether the method of measurement is direct as in Length or Weight, or indirect as in Heat or Electricity; our ideas can be clear, accurate and unambiguous only through mathematical measurement. And, the greater the importance of the item to be measured the greater the need for our method of measurement being exact and accurate. The fact is that measurement in education is practically the same as in the physical sciences, the basic ideas being fundamentally alike in both; but the educational scientist never fails to recognise the difference that exists between a quantity like heat and a quantity like reading ability; he knows that, while in the former case the factors affecting the experiment can fairly be controlled, in the latter case it is extremely difficult but not impossible to control the factors which influence the measurement. He also knows that educational measurement is not free from errors, but he knows, too, that such errors are not fundamentally

different from those which occur in the physical sciences. What is most important to remember in this connection is that the basic function of Science is to help us to attain our objectives in the quickest and most economical way and hence its methods might quite profitably be applied, as they have been applied, towards the solution of many an important problem of education.

Two prominent characteristics of the scientific method as applied to education are: (1) the use of objective methods in the study of school children and particularly their behaviour, tastes and interests, in addition to other matters directly connected with class-work; and (2) the use of controlled experiments for determining through comparison of results the value of specific educational procedures. These general characteristics, however, cannot convey any adequate idea of the technical details which must be mastered before measurement can be conducted with facility and directed to useful ends. As it is impossible to deal with the technical aspects of the subject along with their full implications in one brief chapter, I shall simply indicate a few of the more important applications of the principles of measurement to school problems.

Classification of Scholars.—It has already been pointed out that our present system of classification is extremely defective even on an age-basis. If we had an adequate instrument of mental measurement we would certainly find a worse state of affairs. It is needless to mention the fact that a teacher requires a most

intimate and correct knowledge of a pupil in order to determine what methods and materials to employ for his best training. But it is not enough to find out what ability or abilities a particular child possesses; we must know in what amount they exist in him, and the more exactly we know this amount the better. The idea underlying the classification of children is that they are a homogeneous group and hence are expected to progress in the class with an equal speed. But we are at present unable, with the means at our command, to classify the students in this way. Do we know how to discover children having equal ability or intelligence? Can we put together children who will progress at an equal rate? Here is the need for learning from proper sources the technique of framing and properly using Intelligence Tests, so that the basis of all educational activity can be discovered in a reliable manner, for it is idle to attempt building anything out of a child without knowing the stuff of which he is made,—his inherent mental capacity.

At present in our schools the percentage of higher-age pupils is far greater than that of the under-age ones. Here is an important problem which needs careful investigation. Is this state of affairs a natural one, or brought about by causes which are harmful to the fundamental interests of the children?

Diagnosis for Teaching Purposes.—Our teachers are satisfied with the present practice of mass instruction. They have become accustomed to teaching

whole classes in the customary way and to the usual percentage of passes and failures in the annual examinations. They assume that some good and some weak pupils will always exist in every class and hence they do not find anything requiring attention within the current system. But, do they do anything for the large number of failures detained in every class? Do they, on the other hand, ever pause to consider that the bright pupils at the other end of the scale also require attention and special treatment? I doubt if any single school has ever modified its practice in favour of the super-normal children or taken to heart the oft-repeated warning that the genius of the race is being retarded in our schools.

Teaching will continue to be 'a ritual, a superstition, or a dodge' until our teachers learn the method of measuring the abilities and capacities of their pupils, and not only capacity in general but also capacities in particular, *e.g.*, capacity to learn a particular subject, capacity to progress in all aspects of the subject, capacity to manage different subjects on the same day, and so on. Their weaknesses have also to be understood fully and corrective measures applied if teaching is to mean anything. Our present method of diagnosing all these and other similar cases is extremely crude and vague, while about educational diagnosis for the purpose of vocational guidance or discovering special abilities and aptitudes, the less said in this country the better.

Measurement of the Efficiency of Instruction.—

Teaching has just been compared to a ritual or a superstition or a dodge. These three words, borrowed from a most useful book by Rusk on 'Research in Education' represent with a good deal of accuracy the three classes into which our present system of teaching can be placed. No school is found keeping a clear and worthy aim in view ; no organisation or method discloses clearly that it aims at definite purposes, like creating particular habits at different stages or developing particular abilities. Mass instruction is conducted like random scattering of seeds on unprepared soil, and the result is the same in the two cases. Sometimes I have wondered if a class of pupils would not show the same, if not better, result in tests, if our present system of teaching were completely withdrawn. In such a case boys would probably do better through their own initiative and efforts than if they are dragged by their teachers along lines which are vague and almost purposeless to them.

In any case, it is better that some measures are adopted to save teachers from this sort of criticism, and this object can be achieved by having a clear standard of initial and final achievement for each class. If our class system means anything it is that each class begins its work from a definite standard, and, after one year of work, is expected to attain a certain standard, and the difference between the two standards of achievement forms a good index of the

teachers' efficiency. If we could devise and use standardised tests in the various fundamental subjects with the object of preparing a standard scale for measuring the pupils' achievement in a particular area, and if the scale were prepared properly, we should then have a sort of footrule with which to compare the efficiency of instruction in a particular school or in a particular subject or subjects. This method of setting up a standard for a particular area for the purpose of comparison and guidance is one of the best methods of educational measurement being impersonal and objective in the strictest sense of the terms.

Measurement of Waste in Education.—I do not know if our attention has ever been drawn pointedly to the tremendous waste of time, energy and money daily occurring inside our educational system. This waste is extravagantly caused by that wretched form of repetition so fondly practised by our teachers under the name of *revision*. It is a common sight in our schools to find children engaged in revision from the month of January onwards, which to me means that the course is either too meagre for one year or has been perfunctorily done in the class. In any case, if there is any waste here, it can and should be measured and the result of measurement applied towards the reform of the blind system current at the present time.

Other examples of waste are : overlapping of subject-matter, the same topic being taught as a new one in different subjects to the same class, which shows that

the head of the institution does not take care to bring about a proper coordination in the work of different teachers; teaching the whole class according to the capacity and pace of the average pupils, thereby compelling the best ones to mark time and thus feel dissatisfaction and, not infrequently, a positive distaste for the subject and dislike for the teaching; the large number of failures in each class, whose time and energy are not treated with proper respect and consideration. The number of instances where our blindness is producing a large amount of waste can easily be multiplied; I have simply pointed out a few of the more glaring instances which, through proper measurement, can bring home to our teachers and headmasters the need for adopting a more sensible outlook towards the work they are expected to perform.

Statistical Methods.—There are already in every school masses of figures accumulated in various connections which can be made the basis of much useful work. The marks awarded in the various tests and examinations, with the help of statistical methods, can easily be worked upon to establish scales in the various subjects and for the various classes for a number of years. At present the purpose of these marks seems to end when they have been posted in the marks register or copied on the Progress Report Cards. The figures for attendance, the figures for absentees, the number of books issued from the library to students and to teachers, the figures for attendance

on the play-ground, the amounts of fine imposed on students for various offences, the number of periods allotted to the different subjects, and a host of other numerical figures can easily be subjected to the scrutiny of statistical methods and the results will go a long way towards making out educational practice less capricious and more sensible and useful.

Technique of Educational Measurement.—The fact is that teachers have never been told the value of measurement along such lines or trained in the technique which can enable them to conduct measurement with purpose and accuracy. It may also be pointed out that, while it is not difficult to learn from the many excellent and easily available books on the subject the methods of measurement, it is a much more difficult task to interpret the results in terms of their practical application. It is absolutely necessary for the investigator to be able to arrange the data in a Frequency Table, calculate Means and Standard Deviations and also Correlations, understand the full significance of such terms as Intelligence Quotients, Educational Quotients, Norms, etc., and also work upon Research Methods along approved lines, arriving ultimately at numerical figures which are mathematically accurate. The real difficulty will arise when the numerical results have to be correctly interpreted for the purpose of practical application. The main object of educational measurement is not to furnish amusement or gratify curiosity, but to supply

definite handles to the teacher for managing his life's business. This brings us to the need of remembering the difference between "pure research" and "practical research" which is explained by Charters in the following words :

"Pure research has only two steps. First, a problem may be selected from any source, and secondly, a scholarly and careful solution must be found. In practical research there are five steps. (1) A going concern is studied, measurements made and points of weakness discovered. (2) Some one of these weaknesses is selected for investigation. (3) Then follows solution in the laboratory. (4) This is succeeded by the step of installation, in which modifications must be made so that the solution will work in practice. (5) Finally, the solution must be maintained by placing it in the organisation so that it will become a permanent part of the system. The pure research worker must, upon entering the practical research field, never lay the blame for the lack of use of his solution upon the organisation. It is absolutely essential that he considers the failure to use it to be a failure in his solution, and he must seek to make the necessary changes and set up the proper routine to secure its permanent use." (Quoted in Rusk: *Research in Education*, p. 20.)

Here is a practical hint for the educational investigator. It is with a knowledge of the technique of measurement coupled with a strong commonsense, a clear outlook and a correct perception of educational purposes, that he can make his contribution towards the reform of education.

Schools as Laboratories.—Apart from the question of educational research and investigation it is necessary for every teacher and headmaster to remember that experimentation with methods and with different activities is absolutely necessary and should be positively encouraged if schools are to command respect and maintain themselves abreast of the times. This is not the place to suggest what types of experiments should be conducted in our schools but it can easily be understood that, if teachers are constantly to test the efficacy of their own methods of teaching they must conceive of the whole school as a laboratory or rather the various classes as so many different laboratories in which different kinds of experiment can easily be conducted. For the purpose of teaching different topics in the various subjects, of recording progress of scholars from term to term and from year to year, of comparing results with those of other schools and collating the various types of primary data and analysing them, of drawing useful conclusions, of testing the applicability of the various experiments and innovations of other lands inside our schools and so on, teachers have to be encouraged to adopt an experimental outlook in all that they do in connection with their school work.

The suggestions that have been made earlier in this chapter for the guidance of the educational investigator are more or less technical but not much of technical training is necessary to keep the average

teacher functioning in the rôle of an educational experimenter. There are heaps of books and journals recording the progress of such experiments in various countries not excluding India and if the teacher keeps himself in touch with these publications he can easily see what should be done to prevent his own methods from getting rusted and out-of-date. It is most unfortunate that the Diary which all teachers are required to maintain do not show anything which can be called experimental or comparative in the true sense of the term. With a little thought and intelligent effort every teacher can make his Diary a useful record showing how he has constantly been trying to follow an intelligent method and not infrequently submitting it to testing and modifying wherever necessary.

The suggestion should be enough. It lies with our headmasters to inculcate the true scientific spirit and to create the real objective outlook in the school and encourage his assistants to record and deal with the primary data which normally accumulate in all classes in connection with the teaching of the various subjects and activities, the ultimate responsibility of collating and interpreting them for practical purposes and outside information being shouldered by himself. There is no reason why the headmaster's room, the school hall and the school museum should not show graphs and charts indicating the results of teacher's experiments and useful educational pamphlets published on behalf of the school staff.

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